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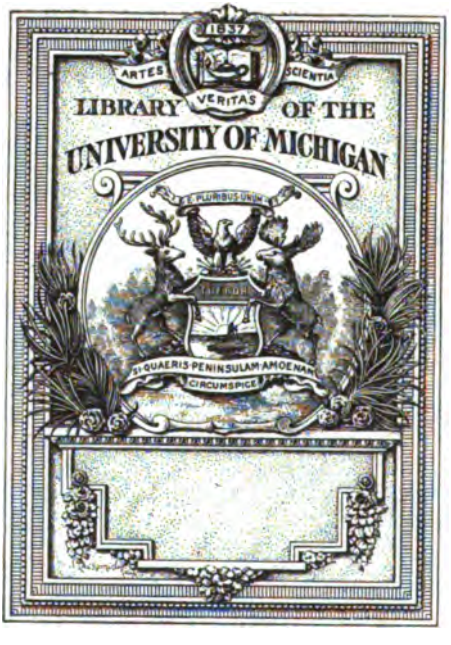
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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

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REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

CONSULAR DISTRICTS.

No. 25.—November, 1882.

PUBLISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE,
1882.

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

NOVEMBER, 1882.

THE CANADIAN AND AMERICAN TARIFFS.

REPORT BY CONSUL PACE, OF PORT SARNIA, ON THE CANADIAN AND AMERICAN TARIFFS AND THEIR EFFECT UPON TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

THE CANADIAN TARIFF.

I have watched with much interest during the past few years what is known in this country as the national policy, being in fact the system of protective tariff inaugurated and carried into effect by Sir John A. McDonald and the party which sustains him. During the very active political campaign of 1877, the watchword of the conservative party was protection to Canadian industries. The reform party then in power, and under the able leadership of the Hon. Alexander McKenzie, took direct issue with the conservatives on this point. The result was a sweeping victory for Sir John and the party of protection. The time selected by the conservative leader for the introduction of his new policy could not have been better chosen, as it was during the great monetary crisis, when the business of this country (and most other countries of the globe) was suffering in the throes of commercial paralysis, the industries of the Dominion were languishing, and expressions of discontent were everywhere prevalent; but the decisive majorities which protection received at the polls must have surprised even the leaders of the "policy."

After election the reins of government were duly handed over to the victors, and the defeated reform party became once more the party of the opposition. It was confidently predicted that this party of protection, being on the question of tariff so decidedly anti-British in sentiment, could not long endure in Britain's chief colonial dependency, and that the policy of Sir John would surely suffer defeat when it again sought the suffrage of the electors; but in this the advocates of free trade, or low tariff, were mistaken. After a trial of four years it was found that this system had given new life to Canadian industries, and that it had gained friends from the ranks of the opposition; and a new election for members of parliament, which occurred this summer, only expressed again the confidence of the Canadian people in a system which protects labor and its products. To say that Canada has not been benefited by the policy of protection would be to ignore facts in the outset.

At this point is shipped, by a tri-weekly line of steamers, the implements of agriculture and tools of trade which are destined to play an important part in the development of Canada's great northwestern possessions. These products of the loom, the anvil, the furnace, the field, the workshop, and the factory are all the products of Canadian industry. Take away the tariff, and a more convenient market would doubtless be found for the pioneers of the British territory; but the factories and workshops of Ontario, which are now crowded to their fullest capacity, would have to close their doors and discharge their artisans.

THE AMERICAN TARIFF.

Whilst upon the subject of tariff it may not be amiss to offer a few thoughts upon our own tariff legislation, and especially in its relation to the products of Canada. During the past year the price paid in Port Sarnia for merchantable combing-wool in the fleece was from 17 to 22 cents per pound. During the same period of time (being the season when farmers usually dispose of their wool crop) the same class of wool found ready market in Port Huron, Mich., at from 36 to 42 cents per pound. As only one mile intervenes between the two cities, and as the American duties on this class of wool, together with entrance fees, amount to only about 13 cents per pound, a number of Canadian farmers in this vicinity took advantage of this difference in price between the two countries, and sent their wool to the Port Huron market. The advocates of a diluted tariff will argue that if the duty on wool should be entirely removed, or reduced to but a fraction of the present rate, that foreign competition would step in and reduce the price of this product, and render much cheaper the price of clothing to the masses. Upon this point I have again to offer some observations as a witness in a number of instances.

These farmers from Canada, after having disposed of their wool in Port Huron, actually invested the proceeds in American ready-made clothing; brought the same back to Canada, and paid on it a duty aggregating about 27 per cent. ad valorem, and then claimed to have made money by the transaction both ways.

Some years ago Congress deemed it wise to remove the duty on animals of superior breed imported into the United States especially for breeding purposes. At the time, this action of Congress met the hearty approval of farmers and breeders everywhere, and I have no doubt but this legislation had a tendency to stimulate to some extent the desire on the part of the American farmer to improve the breed of his domestic animals. Large numbers of horses, cattle, sheep, and swine were purchased in Canada by American buyers for this purpose, and the sale of breeding animals still continues to a very large extent. The Canadian stock raiser was not slow in finding out that animals especially adapted for breeding purposes were in growing demand, whilst the prices of working horses, store cattle, and sheep, only merchantable when consigned to the slaughter-house, the livery stable, or the plow, had not advanced very materially in price. The animal which had been raised to the dignity of a breeder at once became much more valuable to the Canadian stock-raiser, and as a consequence the price to the American buyer was correspondingly advanced, in most cases fully 50 per cent.

Here we have another lesson from observation, and it teaches this: The only farmer who has been benefited by the abolition of the duty on breeding animals is the Canadian farmer; the mare which for ordinary

purposes he had sold for $100 he now finds to be more valuable to the American buyer, as in consequence of her admission to free entry the purchaser for the American market can afford to pay at least an advance of 20 per cent., the sum which under former tariff regulations he was called upon to pay as duty to the United States Government. But the Canadian stock raiser does not stop at a mere advance of 20 per cent., but in most cases the value of breeding animals is advanced 50 per cent. and even more, and the transaction may be analyzed thus: The Canadian farmer gets $50 more than he would have received but for the abolition of duty on the mare he sells; the American buyer pays $50 more than he would have paid had the duty been allowed to remain, and the United States Government derives not a cent of customs revenue from the importation.

I speak of the free importation of breeding animals, as in this case it seemed to be the desire of Congress to remove, as much as possible, what seemed to be a burden to the American stock-raiser, and to inspire him with a desire to improve the breed of his animals. In some degree, as I have before intimated, he may have been encouraged to purchase superior animals for breeding purposes, but the cost of these animals has not been lessened to the American buyer by legislative enactment. As in all other like acts of legislation, it has only enriched the foreign producer at the expense of the American purchaser.

SAMUEL D. PACE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Port Sarnia, Ontario, September 29, 1882.

SWISS AND FRENCH RIBBON TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON, OF BASLE.

The silk-ribbon manufacture in Switzerland is confined exclusively to the consular district of Basle, which includes, besides Basle City and the outlying canton of Basle, the large and thriving cantons of Berne, Argovie, Neufchâtel, and Soleure.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

As long ago as 1859 the exports of ribbons from this district to the United States amounted to 4,585,167 francs during the year. In 1863 this annual export reached the sum of 6,720,723 francs.

The flush paper-money times succeeding the war period in the United States greatly stimulated the taste for luxurious dress, and in 1872 we find the Basle ribbon weavers sending through a 60 per cent. tariff more than eighteen million francs' worth of their products to the importers of the United States.

At that time France likewise contributed heavily to the American ribbon supply, the French exports of that year amounting to 21,031,574 francs, of which 4,268,691 were velvet ribbons and 16,762,883 taffetas.

The panic of September, 1873, and the succeeding years of depression and enforced economy, curtailed the demand for all luxuries, and the imports into the United States of ribbons from both France and Switzerland shrunk to a mere shadow of their former proportions.

The decline in Swiss ribbon exports to America reached its minimum

in 1876, during which year the total amount was only 4,202,143 francs. The French trade fared even worse, for in 1877 the ribbons sent to the United States had dwindled to 1,238,902 francs.

Since then the trade of both countries in this important line of goods has greatly improved, but Switzerland is still far in advance of her larger and more powerful neighbor. The figures of the past ten years present the following striking comparison:

Exports of silk ribbons to the United States.

Year.	From Switzerland.	From France.
	Francs.	*Francs.*
1872	18, 135, 788	21, 031, 574
1873	12, 844, 376	9, 296, 521
1874	7, 775, 248	7, 127, 267
1875	5, 544, 624	7, 511, 844
1876	4, 202, 143	3, 102, 646
1877	5, 250, 430	1, 238, 902
1878	6, 331, 845	1, 871, 342
1879	9, 332, 536	2, 634, 740
1880	14, 449, 329	4. 772, 254
1881	9, 805, 027	3, 658, 760

The causes of this disparity are variously explained. By some it is asserted that American importers prefer the steady, conservative, and reliable methods of business which are peculiar to the best class of Swiss manufacturers, and they therefore only seek at St. Etienne what they cannot purchase at Basle. Something is also doubtless due to the fact that the Basle ribbon manufacturers work along steadily from year to year, often keeping their looms running at a loss for weeks at a time in order to give their working people employment and keep them together and serviceable against times of greater prosperity.

During such period of dullness the Swiss manufactures confine their work mainly to plain and standard qualities, which they sell at very close prices or consign to American importers in the hope of receiving at least a return of their actual cost.

The French ribbon makers, on the other hand, operate largely in fancy ribbons and novelties which are always more or less speculative. If a striking novelty proves successful, if it meets the temporary requirements of fashion, it often yields an immense profit while the demand lasts; what remains on the looms of it or unsold when the golden moment is past, must be closed out for what it will bring, not unfrequently less than half the cost of its manufacture. Thus the ombres, which yielded a manufacturer's profit of 60, 70, and even 80 per cent. a season ago, are to-day an unsalable drug in the market.

St. Etienne has produced in recent years but few ribbons compared with the large and steady products of Basle, but those few are generally new patterns, many of them goods of surprising richness and beauty.

American buyers go to St. Etienne for the new designs and ideas which they cannot find at Basle, but their heavy orders are placed here where manufacturers are less anxious to risk experimental styles and are therefore enabled to work at closer figures.

FRANK H. MASON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Basle, September 4, 1882.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Basle (including its agency at Berne) during the month of August, 1882.

Kind of goods.	August, 1882.	Same period last year, 1881.	Variation.	August, 1880.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Silk ribbons	1, 377, 983. 85	1, 246, 044. 51	+131, 939. 34	1, 897, 699. 05
Silk tissues	19, 728. 07	36, 780. 75	— 17, 052. 68	61, 910. 20
Watches and watch materials	970, 594. 07	893, 339. 45	+ 77, 254. 62	838, 913. 70
Cheese	403, 654. 80	134, 370. 85	+269, 283. 95	233, 135. 60
Aniline colors	88, 422. 75	77, 502. 46	+ 10, 920. 29	66, 170. 65
Straw goods	.....	4, 205	— 4, 205	.....
Miscellaneous goods (mainly wood carvings, tools, and drawing instruments)	131, 379. 45	66, 123. 25	+ 65, 256. 20	87, 112. 50
Totals	2, 991, 762. 99	2, 458, 366. 27	.....	3, 184, 941. 70
Net increase	.....	.....	533, 396. 72	.....

Net increase as compared with the same period last year, $102,576.30.

SWISS VS. AMERICAN SILK MANUFACTURES.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON, OF BASLE.

THE SWISS RIBBON TRADE OF 1882.

Thus far the year has been an exceptionally prosperous one for the Swiss ribbon makers. Besides a strong and well-sustained demand from England, the exports to the United States, during the first quarter of 1882, reached the large sum of 3,744,397 francs, nearly all of which were sold at prices which yielded excellent profits. At the end of August the ribbon exports from this district, during the first eight months of the year, are found to reach 8,654,612 francs, a gain of 1,560,254 francs over the totals of the same period last year. The season of shipment for the trade of next winter is now far advanced; within three weeks it will be practically past, and early in October the new patterns for next spring and summer's trade will be put upon the looms.

CHANGE OF STYLES.

For the moment the outlook is uncertain and hardly encouraging. Fancy ribbons, the striking and artistic combinations of plush, velvet, and elaborately woven colored patterns, seem to have run their course on this side of the Atlantic, and there is at this moment a real active European demand for only two qualities, viz, the plain ribbed goods known as "Ottomans," and black or dark velvet ribbons with a reverse face of satin. The manufacture of this latter variety requires particular machinery, and its production in this district will be therefore limited. Such factories as can make it can readily accept contracts that will employ their looms until March.

THE AMERICAN MARKET THE LAST RESORT.

As the demand for "fancy" ribbons fell off in Paris and England during July and August, the manufacturers here have adopted their usual resource of consigning to American importers the ribbons which

remained in stock or on their looms when the European demand was satisfied. Whether these heavy summer consignments have temporarily overstocked the New York markets, or whether the general prosperity resulting from a bountiful harvest will absorb the surplus and keep the demand for the coming season active and strong, are at this time puzzling and important questions to the Basle ribbon weavers.

With the general extraordinary prosperity of the American people, and their steadily extending taste for luxurious dressing, it may be fairly expected that the demand for ribbons will be undiminished; but what kind of ribbons will be wanted is the problem. "No price is too high for Americans to pay for the thing which they really want, and no price can be low enough to induce them to purchase a thing which they do not want," said a leading exporter in discussing the chances of the coming season a few days ago.

If the ornate styles of the past season continue to prevail in America for a time after they have passed the zenith in Europe, then the exports from Basle during the coming six months will probably even exceed those of a year ago; but should the tendency be rather toward plain varieties, the powerful competition of the American manufacturers will meet the home demand and control the market. How formidable and portentous this home competition has become is nowhere better understood or more keenly felt than among the manufacturers in Switzerland.

SILK OPERATIVES' WAGES IN SWITZERLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

From the latest official reports it appears that during the year 1880 there were employed in the various processes incident to silk manufacture in the United States 31,337 operatives, of whom 9,375 were men, 16,396 women and 5,566 children under 16 years of age. The product of their labor during that year was silk goods having a net value of $34,519,723, among which were ribbons valued at $6,023,100. For this labor the 31,377 operatives received $9,146,765, an average of $291, or 1,513 francs each during the year for young and old.

In Switzerland, on the other hand, 67,000 operatives, of all ages from 14 years upward, produce $24,038,600 worth of silk goods, and receive as wages 31,000,000 francs, equal to $5,961,530. This represents an average yearly earning of 462 francs, or $89.16 each.

The Basle ribbon industry employs 20,000 persons, who earn in a fairly prosperous year about 12,000,000 francs, or an average of 600 francs, or what is equal to $116 for each operative. This disparity of wages will be even more striking when the comparison is carried to each special class of operations in the ribbon industry at Paterson, for instance, and at Basle.

Wages per week.

	At Paterson.	At Basle.
Weavers:		
Jacquard looms	$15	$4 00 to 4 50
Failles	10	3 86
Warpers	5 to 6	3 00
Winders	5 to 7	2 31

It is neither probable nor desirable that American silk manufacturers shall even enjoy equal advantages with their Swiss competitors in respect to cheap skilled labor.

It is not in harmony with American ideas that a man should spend the best years of his early life in learning to operate a Jacquard loom upon which, by working eleven hours per day, he can never earn more than four or five dollars per week.

It is not probable that the present disparity between American and European wages in the silk manufacture will be, at least for a long time to come, seriously modified, and the home manufacturer must, therefore, continue to face the stubborn fact that he must pay from twice to three times more wages for the same labor than is paid by his competitor at Basle or St. Etienne.

In all figured or "fancy" ribbons, in which the item of labor bears a large proportion to the entire cost of the manufactured goods, this advantage of the European manufacture is practically decisive, although the success of some enterprising American firms in making high class and elaborate goods despite all competition has been surprising. But in failles, satins, moires, plushes, and other plain varieties, the American weavers have the full advantage of their greater enterprise and skill in the invention and use of machinery. In this field their victory is already won, and every intelligent Swiss manufacturer sees a day coming in the near future when plain ribbons for the American market will all be manufactured at home.

Many of the looms belonging to the Basle manufacturers are given out to people living in the country, who set up the machines in their rural homes and work throughout the year during such time as they are not occupied in the culture of their small farms and the care of their stock. But the changing demands of fashion require constant alterations in the machinery to adapt it to the production of new fabrics and qualities, and these alterations, which are made at the expense of the manufacturer, can only be made advantageously in the large factories in or near the city where all the fine and elaborate qualities of ribbon are produced.

FRANK H. MASON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Basle, September 4, 1882.

KEROSENE OIL IN CHINA.

REPORT BY VICE CONSUL BANDINEL, OF NEW CHWANG, ON THE BEST MEANS TO INCREASE THE CONSUMPTION OF KEROSENE OIL IN CHINA.

Inquiries from the United States as to the position and prospects of the import trade in mineral oil lead me to believe that the following remarks and suggestions may be of general interest:

For mineral lubricating oil there is at present absolutely no demand here, as the implements used by the natives are of very simple construction, and foreign machinery has not yet been introduced. It is, however, generally admitted that this district will afford an extensive field for the consumption of kerosene oil for illuminating purposes if it be properly brought to the notice of the inhabitants of the large provinces which draw their supplies of imports through this port.

This presupposes a willingness on the part of the American shipper to remain out of his money for some time on the first one or two ship-

ments, with a view to build up in the future a large and profitable trade.

Unless this willingness exists, my suggestions will be of no practical value, for none of the foreign firms established here have capital sufficient to accept drafts against consignments, such as I shall presently indicate, nor are there any foreign (*i. e.*, American or European) banks here to assist in making financial arrangements.

Consignments, then, cannot be drawn against, nor will they at the outset be disposed of with great rapidity.

The following figures show the quantity imported of kerosene oil, with approximate value, for each of the four calendar years commencing with 1878, prior to which date it was only included among sundries in the customs annual returns:

	Gallons.	Dollars.
1878	2,000	1,950
1879	1,590	420
1880	6,445	1,700
1881	12,000	2,960

The import for the current year will not, I think, differ materially from that for 1881, nor can any material increase be expected so long as the oil is only procurable at the stores of a few retail dealers at this port, and only imported in small quantities at irregular intervals when a stray sailing vessel from Shanghai happens to visit this port (for steamer agents decline, as a rule, to carry such goods); no, the oil must be placed upon the spot in quantity and *forced* upon the notice of the buyer.

As a first step to this, a direct shipment should be made to this port from the United States, either the whole of a small cargo or a portion of a large one, say 12,000 to 20,000 cases, each containing 65 pounds of oil, packed in two cans, as customary in shipments to China.

In order to avoid all danger of detention at the bar, the vessel carrying the oil should not draw more than 16 or at the most 18 feet of water. She should, if practicable, be timed to arrive about either the 5th of April or 15th October, at either of which dates she might reckon on obtaining a charter hence to a Japanese or Chinese port with a cargo of oil-cake. Or due notice should be given of the dispatch of the vessel to enable the consignees to sell as much as possible to arrive, and to advertise widely throughout the principal towns and villages of this district their intention to hold fortnightly (or, if sufficient inducement is offered, weekly) auction sales, at which kerosene oil would be offered in lots to suit purchasers.

This idea was first suggested to me by a storekeeper two years ago, and careful inquiry has since led me to believe that though at first, owing to the novelty of the proceeding, only one or two hundred cases might be cleared at each auction, yet in a short time the sales would average from five hundred to a thousand cases; and that during the winter, when the frozen roads support the traffic of more than two hundred thousand carts from the far north, the fact of supplies being offered at regular intervals need only be known to create an eager demand.

With the oil might be shipped some lamps of the cheapest possible price consistent with safety, and wicks; anything else would be very likely to lose money, unless, indeed, Massachusetts drills and standard sheetings; but these, of course, are already an article of regular import via Shanghai; and though, judging from past experience, sales by auction of such goods would realize fair prices, yet at first, at any rate, for every bale directly imported here, one less could be sold in Shanghai.

In this connection I would strongly dissuade any person from sending here by way of initiating a business such novelties as would generally be sent to a European colony, for they would in all probability either be unsalable, or result in heavy loss to the shippers without leading to any development of trade, seeing that our adult American and European population all told does not number one hundred, and the natives are not yet sufficiently advanced to appreciate foreign "notions."

The oil, &c., would rarely be sold for hard cash, but in most instances the seller would have to accept a properly guaranteed note, exchangeable at the end of fifteen days for a 15-days' draft on a Chinese bank in Shanghai, the goods being thus practically sold at one month prompt. The usual rate of exchange is 5 per cent. premium, but it is sometimes as low as 3 per cent., sometimes as high as 7 per cent.

Proceeds realized during the winter (say 15th November to 5th April) would naturally be remitted on the opening of the port, and during the open season, as soon as received, to one of the foreign banks in Shanghai, by whom they could be remitted to America, or otherwise applied as might have been stipulated by the shipper of the goods.

Charges here would be: Customs duty, 5 per cent. ad valorem; landing and storage, 5 candareens per case; fire insurance, 1½ per cent.; selling commission, 2½ per cent. on gross proceeds.

J. J. FRED'K BANDINEL,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
New Chwang, August 17, 1882.

AMERICAN VINES IN FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROOSEVELT.

I have much pleasure in forwarding to the Department the following translated letter, which I trust will be received with satisfaction by our people directly interested in the success and progress of the American vine in France. The letter was addressed to a daily journal, La Gironde, of this city, by M. Armand Laland, deputy of the Gironde, M. E. Lawton, and Messrs. Theophile and Paul Skawniski, gentlemen of experience, and whose valuable opinions are highly appreciated, especially in the departments of Herault and Gard, where the phylloxera exists and is fought against with most commendable energy, and in many places conquered by the successful introduction of the hardy American vines.

GEO. W. ROOSEVELT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, October 3, 1882.

AMERICAN VINES IN THE DEPARTMENTS OF HERAULT AND GARD, FRANCE.

MONSIEUR: Having made a journey to Languedoc and in the departments of Herault and Gard, to see for ourselves what measures had been employed this year to destroy the phylloxera, or to recover the ruined vineyards, we have observed several facts that interested us very much, and were impressed that their publication would be useful to the public. We will briefly indicate the most interesting of our observations.

On the 4th of September we visited the vineyard of Barboutet, belonging to Mr. Jaussan. This gentleman and several others, whose vineyards represent more than 2,000 hectares, have succeeded, during several years, in preserving their vines by the application of carbon and by fumigating. By this process these intelligent proprietors maintain their vineyards in a satisfactory state of vegetation and production.

During the years of largest yield the vineyard of Barboutet, which has a surface of 80 hectares, has produced 10,000 hectolitres of wine. Last year, on account of the inclemency of the season and the ravages of the *Pyrale*, this property produced only 4,000 hectolitres, that is to say, about eight tuns to the hectare. In the greater part of this vineyard we have observed a beautiful and normal state of vegetation, but noticed that in some spots the sulphate of carbon had not produced the desired effect. Mr. Jaussan attributed this to excessive dampness, which neutralized the action of the sulphate; this he hopes to remedy by drainings.

On the 5th of September we successively visited the environs of Montpellier.

Our first visit was to the domain of Vivier, belonging to Mr. Pagezy, who, some years ago, had all of his French vines destroyed. His vineyard now presents the interesting example of thorough restoration by the American vines which were planted ten years ago. The Clinton being used, grafted next on French vines, resists perfectly well the phylloxera; the Clinton is not, however, considered the best vine for grafting.

Our second visit was to the vineyard of Rother, owned by Madame St. Pierre, widow of the eminent and regretted director of the Agricultural School of Montpellier. This vineyard is one of the best cared for that we have visited, and is very interesting.

We saw the Jacques in the highest state of cultivation; and also saw French vines grafted on the Jacques, Clinton, Taylor, and Riparia. They presented a most beautiful and satisfactory aspect, with promise of an abundant yield. The vines grafted on the Riparia have a stronger vegetation than the others. On seeing such gratifying results obtained by the production of French vines grafted on American cuttings, it gives a hope that our destroyed vineyards may be restored.

We next proceeded to the vineyard of Mr. Jules Leenhardt, one of the most intelligent vine-growers of this country. He was one of the first to propagate the American vines, and his immense estate presents a most satisfactory and encouraging appearance on account of the American vines cultivated as direct production, as the Jacques and also the grafted American vines, which have, like those of Madame St. Pierre, a beautiful vegetation and an abundant production.

Our next visit was to the Agricultural School of Gaillarde, where we saw numerous samples of nearly all the varieties of American vines introduced into France. We found fields of Jacques and d'Herbemont showing fine vegetation and sufficient fruit, but much less than the French vines grafted on American roots. We have observed with much pleasure in this school a certain number of stocks of one of our fine varieties of Médee, the Carmenet-sauvignon grafted on the Riparia, showing a rich vegetation and fine production. At the domain of Mr. Ernest Leenhardt we saw magnificent Jacques and French vines grafted on American vines, full of vigor and loaded with fruit.

On September 6 we visited the splendid vineyards of Valantres, and the chateau Pignau, belonging to the Count de Turenne. Some years since the vines of these vineyards were entirely destroyed by the phylloxera. A few years ago he replanted 90 hectares, nearly all in Riparia, which were afterwards grafted on French vines with the greatest success. We also observed extensive fields of "Aramons" grafted since four years on Riparias which had been planted two years before. The results are splendid, the vegetation vigorus, the production abundant. All the vines are full of magnificent grapes well nourished, and the growth so great that many vines have shoots five yards long. We were informed here as elsewhere that French vines grafted on American roots produced a more abundant yield than the native vine ungrafted. In the field we have just spoken of, we were told that the direct product used to be from 150 to 160 hectolitres of wine to the hectare. It is estimated that this year it will be 220 hectolitres the hectare; and this did not seem an exaggeration.

After quitting Valantres we went to the vineyard of Mr. Arnat, lawyer, at Montpellier. There again we saw French vines grafted on American stocks and giving a prosperous growth and an abundant production. The same day we visited the estate of Mr. de La Sorres, which serves as a field for experiment to the Agricultural School of Montpellier. We again saw interesting fields of Jacques and grafted American vines.

On September 8 we visited the property of Mr. James Chum and that of Mr. Leonce Guiraud, at Villary. Everywhere we admired the beautiful vegetation of the American vines and the abundant production of French vines grafted on American stocks. Mr. Guiraud has devoted extensive fields to experimenting in the cultivation of American vines to observe the strength of their vegetation, their power of resistance to the phylloxera, and their value as direct production, and for grafting. Mr. Guiraud is especially pleased with the Herbemont as a good direct production; that is mainly due to the soil in which it is cultivated. It is the Jacques which is generally preferred.

September 9 we devoted entirely to visiting the vast estate of the Duchess Fitz

James. We have admired there what we have mentioned above, American vines (principally the Jacques) cultivated for direct production; also noticed with agreeable pleasure American vines grafted on French stock. The energy and intelligence with which the duchess has restored her vineyards commanded our highest admiration. Some idea can be formed when we state that she has already successfully planted 510 hectares, and she intends increasing this to 800 hectares. The courage, confidence, and example of the Duchess Fitz James and other large vine-growers have contributed in a great measure to convince other vine-growers of Languedoc that the once magnificent vineyards now completely destroyed can be gradually restored by the introduction of American vines. The department of Gard, which had 102,000 hectares of vines, has lost 100,000. The department of Herault, which has produced 15,000,000 of hectolitres of wine, produced only 3,000,000 in 1881. This year it is estimated that the yield will be only 1,500,000 hectolitres, and that next year it will not produce any. It is said that in the spring of 1883 about 51,000 hectares of American vines will be planted, and considerably more the next year.

From information given to us we find in the departments of Herault and Gard that nearly all the vine-growers have a decided preference for two varieties of the American vines: 1st, the Jacques as a direct production, and also for grafting; 2d, the Riparia for grafting. There are other varieties besides the Riparia considered very good for grafting, namely, the Clinton, Viola, Solanis, York, Madeira, and Rupestris. Generally the grafts are planted in cuttings on the place to be grafted after they have their second leaf. On account of what we have said it must not be supposed that we give our first preference to the Jacques as a direct product, or to the Riparia for grafts. The Jacques is more exposed in the Gironde than in the Languedoc, owing to the ravages of the arithranose and the mildew. In some of our soils the Herbemont may be advantageously substituted for the Jacques. The Riparia is, however, supposed to be the best for grafting, although the Viola and Solanis may do better. These remarks are of great importance, as no absolute or general rule can be indicated. Nothing is better than experience to aid in judging the different soils.

It is to our compatriot of the Gironde, M. Laliman, that we are indebted for first introducing the American vines to resist the phylloxera. He shares with other prominent gentlemen the honor of having indicated to the French vine-growers three methods that can be employed, according to place and circumstances, to successfully combat the terrible scourge, namely, insecticides, submersion, and American vines.

ARMAND LALANDE,
Deputy of the Gironde.

RAVAGES OF THE PHYLLOXERA IN FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS, ON THE RAVAGES OF THE PHYLLOXERA IN FRANCE, AND ON THE SEVERAL METHODS FOR ITS DESTRUCTION.

The growth and development of viticulture in the United States has assumed such importance and is likely to have a future of such prolific wealth for the country as well as for those engaged or who may hereafter engage in the culture of the grape and the making of wine, that it would seem but natural that the commercial representatives of the government in foreign lands should contribute all the light and information possible upon the subject in order to guard our people against the rocks and shoals upon which the richest countries of Europe engaged in this industry have been wrecked,

My consular jurisdiction, embracing as it does some of the wealthiest and best of the vineyards of France, particularly those of the Burgundy districts, without speaking of the Beaujolais and some of the wines of the Midi, renowned like the Hermitage, has naturally led me to observe some of the conditions and especially the misfortunes which have overtaken the industry in latter years, and which, like some unmerciful disasters, "have followed fast and followed faster," until utter ruin seemed impending.

To guard and if possible protect our people from the sad experiences of the older lands of the earth against the ravages which are the result of over-taxing the soil, excessive production, and ofttimes neglect, may

justly be considered one of the provinces of the American consul. For not only should this officer seek to discover and open up or point out new fields for the commercial enterprise of his countrymen, but likewise, by relating the experiences of those countries to which he may be accredited, defend home interests and enterprise from disaster and guide intelligently capital and labor.

It is said that half the vineyards of France have actually been or are on the point of being destroyed by the ravages of the *Phylloxera vastatrix*, the loss from this destructive insect being estimated at over $1,000,000,000.

Innumerable committees, syndicates, societies, and individuals have studied and tried to arrest these ravages. Until now all attempts appear to have been in vain.

At length Mr. Pasteur has been engaged to look into the subject, and we may hope that the same happy results will follow from his investigations as proceeded from his studies of the silk-worm disease, which he may be said to have radically cured, for the disease has almost disappeared.

THE GRAPE-VINE DISEASE.

The *Phylloxera vastatrix* appears under four different forms, viz:

1st. The sexual or regenerator;

2d. The fly or colonizer;

3d. The radical (also called apterous) or *Devastator vastatrix;* and,

4th. The phylloxera of the leaves, or multiplicative.

One female phylloxera of the leaves, born from the winter egg, has at the end of May laid 500 eggs. The 500 young phylloxeræ born of these eggs are parthenogenesic, and at the end of June they have produced 250,000 more phylloxeræ.

At the third generation the number would reach 62,500,000,000 phylloxeræ, and as there are five or six generations in the year, if the calculations were continued the simple enumeration of the total would fill the length of a foolscap sheet of paper.

All the phylloxeræ which do not fix themselves on the leaves go to the roots. They begin to go down in June, and the first blast of cold wind sends them all down.

The Department has already received and published (Commercial Reports No. 14, December, 1881) the report of the commissioner who attended the International Phylloxera Congress at Bordeaux, in October last, and which was transmitted by Minister Morton.

I beg to submit, in addition to that report, the following observations which I have derived from authentic sources, from French newspaper reports, and from an intelligent correspondent who has communicated a part of his experiences and criticisms to one of the leading journals of London.

The subjects brought before the Bordeaux Congress were, the examination of the actual state of the vineyards in France, and the consideration of the various means adopted to combat the disease. These are of two kinds, direct and indirect.

Among the direct means are, first, submersion; secondly, the application of insecticides.

The indirect is the reconstitution of the vineyards in soil said to be resisting to the phylloxera—such reconstitution to be made by grafting so-called resisting plants on resisting stock.

The congress came to the following conclusion:

It is possible [so reads the report] to combat the plague. But the vine-grower must use great caution in choosing the means, have some experience acquired by previous study, and give his vineyard an active and personal attention.

To properly understand the conclusion arrived at by the congress it is necessary to enter a little into the facts and arguments which were placed before it.

In the first place submersion is supposed to be a remedy; but the conditions required for a successful application of this remedy are such as to render it impracticable in ninety-nine cases out of one hundred. Submersion to be effective in drowning and asphyxiating the phylloxeræ of the roots must be of at least forty-five days' duration, *without intermission*, covering the soil by seven or eight inches of water. This should be done between November and March. Very few vines are planted in the plains or on the borders of large rivers; most vineyards are on slopes and plateaus, which may command small water-courses, but cannot be submerged. Large irrigating canals may allow of submersion, but these are very few and far between in France.

Submersion to be effective must be practiced every year. A case is reported where a well-known proprietor submerged his vines for five years consecutively, but stopped the sixth. Immediately after, the old plague-spots reappeared. The phylloxeræ seem to live a long time in water, or on the air contained in water, and it is easy to understand that though the water may cover the earth by seven or eight inches there is, in the small irregularities and angles between the roots and the soil, some air, which no amount of water pressure can remove, and which is sufficient to preserve a certain number of the phylloxeræ, and it has been observed how even one single phylloxera is capable of producing a most prodigious quantity in an incredibly short space of time.

Again, submersion does not suit all kinds of vines. To some it gives plenty of branches and leaves, but renders them sterile. To others it gives a predisposition to *colure* or withering of the grape when in flower. If the water used be clear a good manuring is required after the submersion; if it be muddy no manure is required.

The second direct remedy is the introduction into the soil of insecticides to poison the phylloxera. Of all the thousands of compounds tried, chemical and otherwise, sulphuret of carbon and sulpho-carbonate of potash have been found to give best results. The former is injected pure into the soil, the latter is carried to the roots by being mixed with water.

A great number of vineyards have been preserved by the continuous application of these insecticides, but none have been entirely cured, and if the treatment be stopped one year all the good previously obtained is lost. The vines so treated are never completely freed from the insects. New colonies spring up in the summer, and in August and September the least practical eye can see the swarms of insects which infest the vineyards. This reinvasion, as it is called, is the result of a few insects left behind on the roots by a treatment which must of necessity be imperfect. The nature of the soil has a great influence on the action of insecticides. If it be a rich and deep soil the vine recovers vegetation soon after the treatment; but wherever the soil is poor, calcareous, and not deep, the insecticides are a perfect failure. In any case manure must always be administered to the vines in addition to the sulphuret of carbon or sulpho-carbonate of potash, in order to give food to the new rootlets which quickly form in good soil.

Young and adult vines alone recover; old vines, which give the best wine, are doomed to die; the insecticides cannot save them.

There is another consideration which must be borne in mind. It is that of cost. The average cost of treatment with sulphuret of carbon and manuring is, the first year, $88 per acre; each year afterwards

$55. With sulpho carbonate of potash and manuring, the first year, $135 per acre; each year afterwards, about $100.

Considering that the average production in the Gironde does not exceed four hogsheads per acre, the extra cost to be added to the ordinary expense of tilling the vine would be equivalent to $12 a hogshead. To cover this expense the wines should be worth at least $30 per hogshead on the spot.

It will be seen at a glance that though this remedy may be applied to a few favored vineyards it is not practicable for the vast majority of the French vineyards, the average price of the wines at the place of production before the phylloxera having been only about $8.50 per hogshead, or $3.75 per hectoliter.

"In fact, the experience of the last few years," says the report of the section of the congress specially dealing with the subject of insecticides, "condemns us without any hope for the future to the total loss of all native vines which are planted in poor soil, through which the phylloxera runs, as it were, at a racing speed."

"In all our experience," continues the report, "we have constantly seen that the more beautiful, the more productive, the better manured the vineyard was, the greater and more intense the invasion; we are really without any means of defense against these reappearances *en masse* of the devastating insects."

Sandy soil containing upwards of 60 per cent. of silica seems to be suitable for resisting the phylloxera. The reasons given for this immunity are that it entertains the moisture at the foot of the vines, and by filling up immediately every little crevice which might exist between the roots and the soil the insects cannot move about on the roots. They are in fact smothered by the sand.

It is known that, in all clay or in other strong soil, the fissures in the earth are the high roads for the phylloxera. But, like the other remedies, sand is not absolutely successful; vineyards have been known to perish in soil containing 75 per cent. and even 80 per cent. of pure sand. The congress expressed a wish that a special study of this subject should be undertaken by order of the government.

As to the first suggestion of the congress of grafting resisting plants on resisting stock, I would refer to the report of our special representatives, remarking, however, that on this subject the same difficulties appear to be met with.

Are there (it is asked) any real resisting plants, and what are they?

Various sorts of plants, French and American, have here and there subsisted for a time through special circumstances, such as heavy manuring; but no positive evidence has been deducted to show that these so-called resisting plants would continue to brave the phylloxera.

At first it was said that the phylloxera was imported from America; but our own viticulturists claim that the phylloxera vastatrix which is doing so much damage in Europe has been brought to the United States from Europe. We have had, as it is well known and acknowledged at home, for a long time the phylloxera of the leaves, but not the *vastatrix*.

It is well to signalize here the opinion existing (I cannot say prevailing) in France respecting our American vines. They have so many partisans and so many opponents that is impossible to say that they are as yet recognized as a remedy.

At one time the Jacquery was much in favor as being the most prolific and resisting of American stocks, and in some parts of France, the hot-

test climates, it seems to answer, but in the higher regions of the southwest it appears a failure.

Mr. Lafitte, a vine-grower of note in the Gironde, states:

> In 1875 I bought 1,000 of the Jacquery plants which I grafted on native vines. I took the greatest care of them. In 1879 I was delighted with their appearance, but, alas, now they have all perished by mildew, which has spread from them to the other vineyards around.

Partly on account of this failure, partly on account of the change of character which these vines must give to the wine produced, Mr. Lafitte rejects them altogether. He goes farther; he advises the other growers to make every effort to preserve their old vines, and the special character of the delicate Medoc wines.

Among the American vines, which number a great many sorts, only about half a dozen are now said to be even relatively resisting. The Herbemonte and Cunningham Elvira, which are said to give a rather poor, thin, wine, and are not suitable for making either claret or brandy.

The most approved plantation in France to-day is our American Riparia stock, grafted with native sorts, and it appears that this has the fairest chance of redeeming the French vineyard, *i. e.*, curing the plague. It is, however, still too early to say whether this will be the solution of the question.

A good many suggestions were offered at the congress as to the cause of this plague. One of the most ominous explanations was given as a quotation from an Alsatian naturalist, Charles Oberlin, who thirty years ago said:

> The artificial reproduction and training of vegetable life have a bad side, inasmuch as every departure from the laws of nature has for consequence to exhaust the plant little by little and to destroy it. It is with much sorrow that I see the vineyards of Europe beginning to show signs of great age; already, here and there, evident traces of the exhaustion of the vital force of the plant are to be seen, cryptogamic vegetations show themselves, and there is no doubt that in a short time the vine will succumb before the attacks of vegetable and animal parisites of every description.

The member of the congress who quoted the above opinion proceeded to suggest that with the destruction of the forests and woods and the consequent dryness of the soil, and the great age of the French vineyards, the vital temperament of the vine is used up, and it is only fighting with the troubles which forbode an early end; and he concluded by saying *that the vine must be renovated and a new generation formed by means of seedlings and wild vines.*

Monsieur Calvet, a member of the congress from the department of Charente Inférieure, submitted the following resolutions:

1st. The whole vineyards of the Lower Charente are doomed to die within a few years.

2d. The known means of defense, submersion and insecticides, are rendered useless by the peculiar local circumstances, with few exceptions.

3d. *The government should make grants to encourage the planting of American vines* as they do for the use of insecticides.

4th. *And a school should be formed for studying the choice, cultivation, and grafting of American vines.*

The French Government could easily afford to do this. The amount spent by it in 1881 was less than $250,000, while the loss of revenue to the French people alone exceeded $120,000,000.

At the meeting of the agricultural society of France, held at Paris in February last, the president, the Marquis de Dampierre, in the course of his admirable discourse reviewing the agricultural condition of

France, speaking of the ravages of the phylloxera and of the other plagues affecting French vines, bore the following testimony in behalf of American plants as the sole and only recuperative: "For my part," he said, "I must candidly confess, in spite of contradictory opinions even from high and authoritative sources, that the American vines have become my sole resource."

The success of a large number of American plants (he continues) was prematurely and imprudently proclaimed, and with such an enthusiasm that sufficient discrimination was lacking in selection, provoking as a consequence adversaries, who having bad failures, or who, without proper regard to those plants which possessed real and incontestable merits, pronounced the whole category as valueless. It is never difficult to contest the assertions of those who have thus lightly treated a subject of such serious importance, especially when tests have been made so thorough and so exacting as to leave little for doubt as to the truth. "For myself," adds the marquis, "who have torn out the old and planted the new, who have handled and turned for months the pruning knife and the magnifying glass upon thousands of American plants of different species. * * * When to this, for several consecutive years, to the root and to the branch these experiments have been made, and the feebleness of the one and the strength of the other has been tested, and in this serious struggle to arrive at the truth, a result has been incontestably obtained, a proof positive secured, it is surely permitted to present the fact of the power and resistance of those species from which the largest harvests and the best grapes have been secured, especially when from this product wines have been made which have been everywhere received and favorably pronounced. With such an experience, I may be allowed to give my judgment not only on the point of the grafting of the American upon the French vine, but still more as a direct and positive evidence of the successful culture of the American plant on French soil, and of its superiority and preference to French vines."

I shall not fail to follow and report to the Department upon this important subject, which possesses so much interest for our people.

BENJAMIN PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, August 23, 1882.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH SAMOA.

REPORT BY CONSUL DAWSON, OF APIA.

During the first six months of this year five vessels arrived at this port from San Francisco with cargoes of lumber, provisions, and goods invoiced at $59,097, and valued here at $78,796, about 20 per cent. being added for freight. The monthly average of imports from the United States was $9,849.50, or an average monthly increase over last year of $4,442.36. Within that time the firm of Kustel & Wightman, of San Francisco, established a business house here and erected a large warehouse and intend speedily to build a large dwelling house. They will soon begin to export cobra to San Francisco, where they have their own mills for manufacturing the cobra into oil and oil-cake. The firm of Gravesmühl & Moors, in connection with A. Crawford, esq., of

San Francisco, have also started a flourishing business here, and there now seems to be no good reason why a lively trade should not spring up between the United States and Samoa. The establishment of these two American houses has already been a great boon to the Samoans; and cobra, the price of which the German firms had reduced to three-fourths of a cent per pound, now brings just double that sum, and all on account of the competition of the Americans, who are already making serious inroads on the business of the Germans, many of whose ships leave here with much reduced cargoes. The price of goods has also been reduced in some instances a hundred per cent. by the American houses; and the Germans, finding themselves without a monopoly any longer, are obliged to put their prices down also, or close their stores. Trade is very much cut up at present, and there are twenty-six licensed stores in Apia. All except the two American houses mentioned above are complaining of dull times; but so they did last year, which was undoubtedly the best year for business ever experienced in Samoa. One German firm took in $52,000 cash over the counter of their wholesale store, and an English house took in a similar amount.

American gold is in great demand here at present, and parties are freely offering from 7½ to 10 per cent. for it. English gold is rated at from 5 to 7½ per cent. One cause for this is that foreign shippers require freights and passage money in American and English gold, refusing the South American coins, which are the currency of these islands, and which are intrinsically worth only from 55 to 62 and 82 cents on the dollar.

THOMAS M. DAWSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Apia, Samoa, August 11, 1882.

GENERAL TRADE OF SAMOA.

REPORT BY CONSUL DAWSON, OF APIA.

When I made my commercial report a month ago, I was unable to obtain any statistics of the business done here outside of that with the United States. I now flatter myself that, for the first time in the history of Samoa, through my friendly relations with the merchants, something like an accurate statement of the commerce of these islands with the outside world is herewith made, which amounts this year in imports to about $555,000, and in exports to about $600,000, the exports produced in Samoa amounting to about $400,000, and the imports used here to a like amount, viz:

1. Business (1881) with Samoa of the Deutsche Handels and Plantagen Gesellschaft der Südsee Inseln, successors of J. C. Godeffroy & Son:

Imports of merchandise from Hamburg, Sydney, and San Francisco	$250,000
Imports of coin from west coast, San Francisco and Sydney	80,000
Re-export of merchandise to other islands	170,000
Import of produce from other islands, 1,800 tons cobra	164,000
Export of produce from Samoa, including imports from other islands, 3,200 tons cobra	256,000
And 3,000 bales cotton	135,000

Plantations: Acreage under cultivation in 1881, 5,942 acres; of which 598 acres were opened up this year. Coffee-growing commenced on a

large scale—in the ground, 172,000 plants. Proceeds of plantations, cobra, 200 tons; sea-island cotton, 1,500,000 pounds; kidney, 1,800,000 pounds.

Laborers employed (colored), 1,847; of which there are males, 1,291; females, 556. Laborers arrived in 1881, 492; sent home in 1881, 221; increase during 1881, 221.

2. Another German firm (name withheld by request) imports, from Europe, $3,750; from San Francisco, $14,500; from Sydney, $7,000; from Auckland, $2,850; total, $28,500.

Exports: 2,310 tons cobra, value $210,466.66, of which 800 tons were imported from other islands.

3. Imports of all others, about $40,000.

There is under cultivation by foreigners in Samoa at the present time about 6,500 acres, and the total number of foreign laborers (colored) is about 2,000.

THOMAS M. DAWSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Apia, October 17, 1881.

THE LABOR TRAFFIC IN SAMOA.

REPORT BY CONSUL DAWSON.

The labor question is one affecting all other interests in Samoa. The Samoans are notoriously proud and lazy, and will not work if not absolutely obliged to do so by their necessities, and then only for wages which few can afford to pay, $1 per day being the least they are willing to accept for their services. When they do work, it is only for a day or two at a time, and at irregular and infrequent intervals. Hence the first question which any one must consider in undertaking to develop the internal resources of the Samoan Islands, in the cultivation of the land, &c., is where and how he shall obtain labor. Thus far the oldest German firm here have imported their laborers from New Britain, the Gilbert Islands, Tokilau, the Solomon and Caroline Islands, and the New Hebrides, and altogether have about two thousand blacks on their plantations and about their establishments. These people are brought here under three years' contracts and receive from $1 to $2.50 and $4 per month. They mostly grow their own food, and subsist upon bananas, yams, taro, and bread-fruit, in addition to which they have an allowance of rice, beans, and a small quantity of salt meat. Their food does not usually much improve their condition, and, being a fragile race of small forms and limbs, their strength is limited and their labor of little value, though four or five hundred of them on a plantation succeed in doing a good deal in the course of three years. They are patient, and, under their severe taskmasters here in Samoa, some of whom remind one of Simon Legree in Uncle Tom's Cabin, are steady at their work from early morn till sundown, and as a punishment for any little dereliction of duty many of them are compelled to labor on Sundays. The overseers of plantations have been accustomed, if one stole a piece of meat, or bread, or any trifling thing, without judge, jury, or trial, to sentence the culprit to six months or one or two years' extra service beyond his contract time. In this way some of them are kept on many years. I have heard of one instance of a man being

kept here eight years in this manner. The mortality amongst the colored laborers was greatest in 1874 when it reached 16 per cent., and least in 1879, when it was 8 per cent. The ordinary death-rate among the colored plantation-hands is about 11 per cent. These laborers are obtained with ease or difficulty according to the food supply on the islands where they reside. In time of plenty scarcely any inducement can entice them away. When there is a scarcity the whole population want to come. Within a fortnight a vessel arrived from some of the New Britain islands with over one hundred laborers on board, and the agent reported that he could have brought a thousand if he had had accommodations for them, so scant was the food supply where they came from. On the other hand, so plentiful is the food supply in the King's Mills Islands this season that one vessel arrived here with but four laborers on board. The laborers generally are very loath to come to Samoa, where they are probably treated more like slaves than anywhere else. A year ago some of them fled into the bush and have not yet been recaptured, though they killed one Samoan. They live on roots and such things as they can steal on the outskirts of cultivated spots and places. It can readily be seen that the great obstacle to all enterprise and to the development and advancement of these islands is the want of labor, which requires large capital to obtain and keep up the supply. The Germans have accomplished much with their laborers, and what were forests four years ago when I arrived here are now fertile cotton and corn fields, and in three or four years more will be productive cocoanut groves containing large wealth for the possessors.

THOMAS M. DAWSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Apia, Samoa, August 10, 1882.

THE MARSHALL ISLANDS.

REPORT BY CONSUL DAWSON, OF APIA, ON THE PRODUCTS AND EXPORTS OF THE MARSHALL ISLANDS.

I have been waiting many months hoping to receive a report from the consular agent on the Marshall Islands, but thus far have failed to hear from him, presumably on account of the infrequent communication between Samoa and those islands. I have the honor to state, however, that Jaluit is the commercial entrepot of the Marshall Islands, and is the principal harbor, being on Bonham Island, a low atoll about 35 miles long and 8 miles wide, with a large still-water lagoon in the center. In fact, the island rim which surrounds the lagoon is not more than an eighth of a mile wide, and its greatest elevation is about seven feet. It contains a population of about five hundred, and about twenty foreigners are located on it, two large German cobra establishments being located at Jaluit, where the products of the outlying islands are brought for transshipment. The exports are cobra, bech-de-mer, cocoanut fiber, red coral, sharks' fins, ivory nuts, and firewood. The latter can be had at about $5 per cord on the islands, and is worth from $14 to $18 per cord in Honolulu. The ivory nuts are very hard, and are sent to China and elsewhere for the manufacture of buttons, &c. The cobra export from Jaluit is about 1,000 tons annually, but must be much larger in time, our consular agent there, Mr. Capelle, having planted

some 60,000 or 70,000 cocoanut trees on Wotje Island. The cobra product of Jaluit or Bonham Island is not large, not exceeding from 40 to 50 tons annually, the island being covered with large quantities of firewood. Bananas, Chile peppers, and vegetables are grown on soil imported from Samoa and other parts, the coral surface of the island not being suitable to their growth. Providence, one of the Marshall Islands, is a good unoccupied island, containing a lagoon, cocoa-nut trees—pigs, goats, &c., running wild—and there seems no particular reason why some enterprising Yankee might not make of it what Mr. Eli Jennings made of Quiros Island.

Jaluit itself is in latitude 5° 54′ north and longitude 169° 43′ east, while the Marshall Islands, divided into the Rallick and Radack groups, east and west, are embraced between 4° and 12° north latitude and 165° and 173° east longitude. A few vessels trade between San Francisco and Jaluit, though their visits are at long intervals. Yet as many as one hundred vessels have appeared in Jaluit harbor in the course of a year. Jaluit is the place where all the colored laborers from the surrounding islands are usually collected before being shipped to Honolulu or Apia.

THOMAS M. DAWSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Apia, Samoa, August 7, 1882.

ENGLISH VS. AMERICAN MILL OPERATIVES.

REPORT BY CONSUL SHAW, OF MANCHESTER.

EXPLANATION OF AVERAGE EARNINGS.

Referring to the inquiry as to the meaning of the word "average" in relation to the daily wages in English cotton-weaving mills, as given in my report of December 1, 1881, as published in Consular Report No. 15, what is meant is simply this: that in certain mills the average will be the figures in the first column, and in other mills the figures in the second column, the ordinary average earnings at any particular mill ranging somewhere between the two columns of figures, as given in my report. I cannot give any single average of the whole, because it is clearly impossible to obtain from two thousand mills how many are averaging the mean and how many the maximum rate of wages, and how many average some figure between the mean and the maximum. Moreover, in even the same mill the average at one period will be very different from the average at another period, changing according to conditions of atmosphere, quality of cotton, and many other considerations. I am asked to give "all the data showing the names, location of mills, the character of goods manufactured, and the several mills with their earnings." It is quite impossible for me to furnish this at present. There is, so far as I can learn, no public record of the data desired. It must be remembered that there is a great and a natural reluctance on the part of manufacturers to furnish information regarding the working of their business. I am indebted to friends who are practically engaged in the cotton trade for the information already published in my three last annual reports, and it is a favor to obtain such facts, but the data asked for above I cannot possibly secure, as employers, as a whole, would not give it. For the average earnings of weavers employed on

three, four, and six looms here, I must refer to my published report, already mentioned, page 7, as containing a very carefully prepared statement of the earnings of operatives in this district. This table was prepared by able authority, and is believed to be reliable.

AVERAGE EARNINGS OF ENGLISH OPERATIVES.

The average earnings are about the same now as in 1871, for although there has been for the past four years a nominal reduction (now amounting to ten per cent.) in the "piece work" prices, the work people now earn as much as in 1871, because of improvements in machinery and increased speeding of looms, &c., which enable them to produce an increased quantity of work per loom.

As to the "number of looms usually attended by one person," this depends upon many considerations, such as widths of looms, plain work or fancy, &c. Speaking, however, in a general sense, and of plain work only, young people (boys and girls from fourteen years to seventeen years of age) manage three looms; older people four, but occasionally six. Where six are worked, the weaver always engages the assistance of a child or two—"half-timers," as they are called in Lancashire—for which assistance he pays about 28 cents per day. I am unable to furnish any reliable comparison between weavers' earnings in England and those in America, as I have no acquaintance with the American cotton trade, so far as the habits and customs of operatives are concerned. In fact, I believe that, owing to the wide difference in the social habits and customs of operatives in England and the United States, it would not be easy to make a comparison free from objections.

Since writing the foregoing I am enabled to furnish the following data directly bearing upon the inquiry contained in the "memorandum." I am indebted to Messrs. Tootal, Broahurst, Lee & Co., of Manchester, for this information, which I personally got from their own books at the mill. The average earning of each loom is $1.54 per week. Looms are tended by women, and "half timers" aid as "helpers." Each operative has charge of from two to three looms, or from two to four with a "helper." The average wages by measure in this mill, where a superior class of fancy fine cotton goods is manufactured, are as follows:

	Per week.
Three looms, at $1.54 per loom	$4 62
Two "half times," at 62½ cents per loom each	1 25
Leaving weaver	3 37
Four looms, at $1.54 per loom	6 16
Two "half times," at 62½ cents per loom	1 25
Leaving weaver	4 91

HOW ENGLISH AND AMERICAN OPERATIVES LIVE.

Here in England the matter of dress, as an instance, differs widely from that of operatives in our country. Bonnets or hats are seldom worn by the girls going or coming from work, a shawl thrown over the head being all the covering used; and wooden-soled "clogs" are much worn in place of leather shoes. The former are cheaper, and answer admirably where flag floors are used, and they are dry and cheap. Then, also, the manner of living is essentially different here to what it

is with us in the States. "Boarding houses" are unknown, and "apartments" take their place in this country, Besides, the operatives here live, as a rule, on plainer and cheaper food than our operatives do; so that, in making a comparison between the earnings of American and English operatives, the task is a complicated calculation, embracing many conditions and considerations which are difficult to determine.

HOUSE RENT AND LIVING IN ENGLAND.

The accompanying table, marked B, contains a full and carefully prepared list of prices of the food English operatives live upon, and other facts of interest. In the matter of "house rents" English operatives know nothing of our American system of "boarding." Here it is the ambition of a married operative to rent a "cottage" and have a home. To meet this demand, mill-owners frequently join other capitalists and build neat and suitable houses, small and large, to rent to operatives. For 66 cents per week a small brick house, or "cottage" as it is termed, being situated in a "block" or "row" of houses, containing a living "room" and two bed-rooms, can be had; 81 cents per week procures one with a kitchen and parlor in addition to the former; $1.00 per week pays for an extra bedroom, and from $1.25 to $1.50 provides a cottage with four bed-rooms, a parlor, and scullery. These cottages are neatly built, present an attractive and comfortable appearance, and their sanitary arrangements are carefully looked after by a government inspector.

Unmarried operatives of either sex, who have no homes, hire a room of some operative who occupies a cottage, and then has food cooked by the wife of the party of whom the "apartment" is rented. She prepares such food as the operative furnishes, and the average expense of this kind of living varies from $2 to $3 per week, according to the way the table is supplied with food.

CLOTHING IN ENGLAND AND IN THE UNITED STATES.

I may add that clothing is much cheaper, on the whole, in England than it is in the United States, especially of the kind and quality worn by English operatives. In this respect, that of styles of dress in both sexes, there is a marked difference between the two countries. Here the operatives are content with a quality and make of clothing which our operatives would not wear. I do not question the English taste, &c., but merely state a well-known fact.

In conclusion, I respectfully refer to my extended and very carefully prepared recent report on the "cotton-goods trade of Lancashire,"* as containing a great deal of important information bearing upon the points and questions submitted in the "memorandum" transmitted to me by the Department.

ALBERT D. SHAW,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Manchester, September 5, 1882.

* Published in Consular Report, No. 23.

B.—FOOD PRICES—LANCASHIRE.

Statement showing the retail prices on January 1, 1882, of certain commodities which enter into the cost of living of weavers and their families, in Manchester, England.

Articles.	Prices.
Bread (brown)	12 to 15 cents for 4-pound loaf.
White bread	10 to 15 cents for 4-pound loaf.
Sugar	5 to 8 cents per pound.
Tea	44 to 80 cents per pound.
Coffee	28 to 40 cents per pound.
Butter	20 to 40 cents per pound.
Bacon	10 to 18 cents per pound.
Cheese	12 to 18 cents per pound.
Pork	12 to 18 cents per pound.
Veal	13 to 25 cents per pound.
Ham	12 to 28 cents per pound.
Mutton and beef	13 to 25 cents per pound.
Lamb	20 to 28 cents per pound.
Tripe	12 to 16 cents per pound.
Chickens	75 cents to $1.50 per pair.
Ducks	75 to $1.50 cents per pair.
Rabbits	25 to 50 cents each.
Hares	50 to 98 cents each.
Herrings and bloaters	3 to 8 cents per couple.
Fish (codfish)	5 to 10 cents per pound.
Salmon	20 to 60 cents per pound.
Rice	3 to 8 cents per pound.
Flour	25 cents for from 5 to 7 pounds.
Macaroni	12 to 15 cents per pound.
Sago	4 to 8 cents per pound.
Tapioca	4 to 8 cents per pound.
Oat meal	4 to 6 cents per pound.
Molasses	3 to 4 cents per pound.
Barley (pearled)	3 to 6 cents per pound.
Lentils	4 to 8 cents per pound.
Haricot beans	3 to 6 cents per pound.
Dried peas	3 to 6 cents per pound.
Split peas	3 to 6 cents per pound.
Green peas	12 to 25 cents per peck, 20 pounds in shell.
Preserves	7 to 25 cents per pound.
Eggs	16 to 48 cents per dozen.
New potatoes	2 to 5 cents per pound.
Old potatoes	1 to 1½ cents per pound.
Cabbages	4 to 6 cents each.
Cherries	6 to 16 cents per pound.
Strawberries	8 to 32 cents per pound.
Gooseberries	4 to 8 cents per pound.
Black, red, and white currants	8 to 20 cents per pound.
Raisins (dried)	10 to 30 cents per pound.
Currants (dried)	6 to 12 cents per pound.
Dates (dried)	8 to 25 cents per pound.
Figs (dates)	8 to 28 cents per pound.
Oranges	18 to 36 cents per pound.
Apples	2 to 12 cents per pound.

Vegetables are comparatively dearer than they are in the United States, and are sold by the dozen or bunch, as a rule.

The above is an extract from my late report on the "cotton goods trade of Lancashire," and was carefully made up from actual retail dealers here.

AMERICAN PATENT MEDICINE IN BELGIUM.

REPORT BY CONSUL TANNER, OF LIEGE.

I notice in the show-windows of my consular district the well-known medicines, hair-dye, &c., of Ayres & Co., and call the attention of the Department to it, because it shows what a little effort and energy will do in a field but too much ignored and neglected by our business men and farmers.

I mention this too with the more pleasure as it is a step in the right direction, that has met with the success that so often and so justly crowns effort, and which I hope will be a substantial proof to our business men that what they have so frequently been told by the Department of State is true, that there is a market in Europe for almost everything in ordinary use in America, if the proper effort is made to grasp it.

I was informed by the druggist in whose store these medicines are sold that they were introduced through the medium of a traveling agent from the above firm, who explained in graphic style their virtues. In reply to my question as to whether there was any demand for these medicines, he quickly responded, "Oh, yes, I am now on the point of ordering double the quantity of my first order. I never had anything as new as they are to come as rapidly in favor, but the demand is not as vigorous now as it will be within a year or two from now. Hop bitters is well known here, and I sell large quantities of them."

I asked him if he could make any suggestions to those with whom he dealt in the United States of benefit to himself or them. "If they," said he, "would send me handsome and attractive cards for my show-window, setting forth what these medicines are good for, printed in English and French, it would aid greatly in making them known, and they would soon be here, what they are in America, household medicines." I hope with this example see others making the same efforts, and I will take occasion to say again that the principal efforts for the advancement of our commerce and industry must come from our business men. The Department may suggest and direct, as it has done, for years to come, and its servants may advance theories without end, but unless these efforts are met with corresponding exertions on the part of our business men, all that the Department can do for them will be unavailing.

These medicines might have just as well been introduced here fifteen or twenty years ago as at the present time, and many things might be introduced now that will doubtless with the same degree of apathy be introduced twenty years hence. Time may accomplish what effort would now do.

When the commerce of a nation is reckoned by millions of dollars, the two items that I have mentioned herein may appear small, but trifles in commerce as well as in nature and art go to make perfection and power. I hope to see the example of Ayres & Co. followed by others.

GEO. C. TANNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liege, September 8, 1882.

AMERICAN SEAMEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL STUDER, OF SINGAPORE.

It has frequently been the case that, through carelessness or indifference, insufficient scrutiny is exercised in obtaining *de facto* seamen. Still an experienced consul can easily ascertain the real facts, and take care that the master's expenses, in a legitimate way, are not unnecessarily heavy. The numerous complaints about the three months' extra wages law are made to appear in a darker light than they deserve. Good, law-abiding, honest, and humane ship-masters do not often have to pay extra

wages, and are not subjected to heavier expenses during a round voyage than the masters of foreign vessels, or very little more. And ten years' experience at this port convinces me that such masters are on the increase. We have plenty of ship-masters that are excellent and able men, and they command respect wherever they go.

The three months' extra wages law has certainly one good effect, and that is, that it tends to remind masters and officers of vessels that they cannot ill treat and abuse seamen with impunity. Consular officers in most countries have no judicial powers to try cases according to United States statutes; but for cruel and unusual treatment sustained on the high sea, the consular officer is the only one that can give redress by releasing the injured seaman from his contract, and making the master pay three months' extra wages and arrears of wages due him.

The three months' extra wages law has a very salutary effect, and is distinctly a promoter of humanity. I need only briefly point out that there are occasionally masters, and oftener mates, first, second, and third, and boatswains, who somehow cannot feel satisfied without "pounding," "kicking," "cursing" (with the foulest and filthiest epithets), and otherwise "maltreating sailors." On entering upon the voyage they "feel their way" to find out those who will retaliate, and those who are not able, or afraid to do so. This latter class of unfortunates are generally men who do not understand English readily, or not of very bright intellect, or of small stature, and weakly. A poor fellow is singled out, and, generally, the mate in whose watch he is, and sometimes both mates and the skipper thrown in, "lazar him" and ill-treat him in all sorts of ways during the voyage, or, not unfrequently, from one end of the voyage to the other.

This is no fiction, but naked clean truth based upon past experience.

Some mates and boatswains are great bullies and brutes, and sometimes, even when known to be such, are shipped on purpose. It is true that the officers of a ship should be men of firmness and vigor; but they should also possess self-control, and, above all, feelings of humanity and justice.

I am glad to say that in the absence of a treaty between the United States and Great Britain for the arrest of seamen deserters, the colonial authorities, upon proper application, order the arrest of deserters from our vessels promptly, and, if desired, have them detained until required to be sent on board; their charges for these arrests and detentions (food included) are always fair and reasonable.

Seamen who come on shore and become intoxicated, and commit breaches of law, are dealt with very leniently by the police authorities, and are generally sent on board. Seamen are not allowed, under a penalty of $25 or three weeks' imprisonment, to carry sheath knives in the public thoroughfares—a very wise law; and, as a result, stabbing affrays in saloons or on the streets are, as compared with former years, of very rare occurrence. The police, too, I may mention, is under a much higher state of discipline than in former years. The seaman has every opportunity to amuse himself after his long cruise, but he is not allowed to disturb the public peace or to violate public decorum. All this tends to ease the task of shipmasters and to reduce their expenses considerably.

Of all the crews that arrived here during the year, a comparatively small percentage deserted, and the greatest number among them got away as stowaways on steamers coaling alongside the wharves.

But for the assistance rendered by the police the number of deserters would have been much larger. It used to be different a few years

ago when the authorities refused distinctly to arrest deserters. I may mention that some sailors, regardless of contract or how well they have been treated, will desert when and wherever they get the chance, and this upon the most paltry pretenses. Very often, without having any complaints whatever against their officers, they desert because they dislike shipmates, generally of a different nationality or color; and, again, when they know themselves to be in debt to the ship. And as regards this latter inducement "in debt to the ship," I beg to make a few remarks and suggestions which seem to me to be pertinent.

The statutes and regulations say that when a voyage or cruise of a ship is subdivided by different voyages, the seaman on arrival in a port shall be entitled to receive the one-third of the wages due him, but no more, and of course it is expected that the consul shall be guided by this law.

As far as my experience goes, I have found it in most instances an impossibility to carry out this law, for the reason that very nearly all seamen serving on American vessels receive either fully or more in the shape of advance wages on shipping than the one-third of the wages earned on a deep-water (transoceanic) voyage. I will now only speak about this port, though the same arguments hold good for ports in Dutch India. The majority of American vessels arriving here come from ports in England and also from New York direct, or via Java. Those from England generally bring crews of which the great majority have been shipped there, owing to wholesale desertions. Those from New York, of course, bring the crews shipped there.

The average length of a voyage from either England or the United States Atlantic ports to Singapore may be safely estimated at 120 days. The great majority of seamen are more or less destitute, with very little or no clothes when they join the ship, and they rely for the latter, and sea boots, oil-suits, &c., on the master's slop chest, which he is by law required to carry. Now, the average sum for slops received by every sailor from the master during a voyage from England amounts, at fair prices, to about £4 10*s.* sterling.

Nearly every sailor uses tobacco, which is included in the £4 10*s.* sterling aforesaid. Almost all seamen shipped in British ports receive two months' advance wages on shipping, at an average (for all grades) of £3 sterling per month. Now, I will add £4 10*s.* sterling for slops during the voyage to the £6 sterling advance wages, total £10 10*s.* sterling, more than enough to cover three months' wages (only lacking £1 10*s.* sterling to pay for an average voyage of 4 months), very nearly all there is due him, and I may mention that many vessels since I have been here made the voyage in less than one hundred days. And as it is the United States consul in England before whom the seamen were shipped who allowed the payment of more than one-third the wages due for an average voyage before the seaman enters upon it, and as the statutes require a shipmaster to carry clothes for destitute or insufficiently clad seamen, it becomes at once evident that it is not the master of a vessel who is to blame if the seaman has received nearly all, if not all, the wages due him on arrival in port; and the Department may rest assured that nothing tends more to oblige resorting to the destitute-seaman's fund than the heavy advances paid to seamen on shipping, advances too, which, as I heard so very many times, the seamen profit by less than the boarding-house keepers, harpies, and unprincipled people that hover around them.

I have alluded to New York, of which, as regards ships and seamen, I know more than of any other American port. I will only say

that, for several years back, seamen were shipped there at about $15 and during the present year at about $18. When shipped at $15 the shipping articles showed that they, the seamen, received generally $40, and when shipped at $18 per month $50, advance wages, or, in fact, very nearly three-fourths of the wages due them for an average voyage, to say nothing about slops and tobacco furnished them during the voyage. These advance wages, exceeding about two-thirds of what the law prescribes, are entered on the ship's articles in the United States shipping commissioner's office. And how much of the $40 or $50 advance wages does the sailor receive? Mighty little, as many, very many, have stated complainingly to me. The man that finds a chance for the seaman to ship takes the advance note given to poor Jack after having signed the papers, and when he, and the "boarding boss," and Tom and Dick have had their "settlements," the sailor entering upon his perilous journey must be satisfied with what they graciously allow him.

Many shipmasters complain bitterly about being compelled to pay these heavy advances, together with sundry other expenses connected with shipping seamen, and to be further obliged to furnish slops. Taking the whole question earnestly into consideration, I feel that they have good cause for complaint, and all the more so that these heavy advances tend to decrease the "destitute-seaman's fund."

A consular officer can reduce exorbitant prices charged by a master for slops and tobacco sold to a seaman, but not the advance wages paid to him on shipping and entered on the shipping articles. If the sailor were actually to receive, himself, the advance wages shown as paid to him on the ship's articles, it would not be so bad; but this is not the case; he is the victim of unprincipled people, and with him, in a measure, the owners and master of the ship (indirectly).

It may be said that if the sailor received, into his hands paid, the advance wages charged to him, he would not pay his honest debts, would get drunk, would not buy clothes, and would fail to go on board. There may be more or less truth in such assertions, but it is not as bad as it is claimed to be. The money is his own, he has to earn it, and being of lawful age and a man, he can do with it as he likes. I have made careful observations upon this very matter, and have always recommended to seamen, however destitute when they shipped, to take as little advance as possible, not more than one month, and gave them the usual advance notes, which they themselves sold to the best bidders. I observed that, as a rule, they paid their honest debts first, for boarding and lodging, for instance (this relates to seamen who were not on the relief of this consulate); next, they would buy clothes, tobacco, soap, &c., and have enough left for their parting glass or "glasses," get more or less intoxicated, and then go on board. The rule here is that the boarding-master with whom they last boarded, whether it be a tavern, or the "sailors' home," sees to it that they join the ship at the appointed time, or nearly. Many do not get drunk or touch liquor at all, and rarely did any of them pocket their advance and then hide away until after the sailing of the ship.

As above stated, there is much complaint about having to pay these heavy advances, more than about three months' extra wages on discharges, and there are, I think, good reasons for such complaints.

1. Advance wages are of little or no benefit where seamen become the victims of the rapacity of unprincipled people.

2. It is an inducement to the seaman, on arrival in port, knowing himself to be in debt to the ship, to desert.

3. If a seaman dies, or a ship is wrecked or lost on the voyage before he earns the advances of money and slops, the unearned balance is a dead loss to the owners and master, and also when a seamen deserts before he has earned what he owes the ship and in the latter case the expenses incurred in an endeavor to arrest the seaman and shipping another man in his place, &c., have to be added to the loss mentioned.

When seamen having no arrears of wages are discharged, by mutual consent, in a foreign port, the liability of the masters to pay three months' extra wages would probably be waived by the seaman in many instances, if he had a goodly balance of regular wages, say two-thirds, due him. And in case a crew is discharged without extra wages, as in the event of wrecking or stranding, and they have no arrears of wages or little due them by reason of heavy advances on shipping, their relief has to come out of the United States "destitute seamen's fund"; there is no other alternative to meet the case.

In American home ports, I will admit, if the seamen would only get the money, there is, as regards seamen actual residents of the United States, especially those who may have families depending on them for support, more necessity for paying advance wages than in foreign ports. But I am aware that there is a provision already for seamen who wish a certain part of their wages paid to their families at home, if they will only make that wish known when they ship.

The British Government, I have been reliably informed, has this very year forbidden the payment of advance wages on being shipped for British vessels in British ports, home and colonial. This new rule was carried into force here several months ago, and I watched how it would work. It rather staggered the sailors at first, but I failed to find that the vessels requiring crews or parts of crews experienced any particular difficulty on account of it, getting all the men they wanted.

It must be patent to any one that upon completion of an entire cruise a seaman under such circumstances must have a good amount of wages due him, the slops furnished to him by the master amounting to but a comparatively small portion of his earnings; and his arrears of wages being paid into the hands of the consul and held by him or by the harbor-master, if discharged in a British port, until he ships again, the cost of the relief furnished to him at moderate rates only being deducted from his deposited wages, he has in most instances on shipping again a sufficiency to buy the necessary clothes, tobacco, &c., for the next voyage, and, after these purchases, enough left to amuse himself in his peculiar way before joining his ship, and he will need no advance wages. If he is a good steady seaman, he will carry enough of money with him to sea to spend at the next port, without being obliged to ask the master for an advance. The master also will not be compelled to carry a very heavy slop chest under such circumstances.

This non-payment of advance wages I can, however, only conscientiously indorse in certain cases, not in all. The United States having no colonies, it makes a difference as regards American vessels. I would, for instance, suggest that American seamen receive, on engaging themselves in foreign ports for American vessels for a transoceanic (not a coasting) voyage, a fixed sum, the equivalent of $15 United States currency (not to exceed $20 for able seamen, or one and one-fourth month of the contract wages, for every grade), under the following circumstances, viz:

1. Destitute seamen (in the full meaning of the word) who have been wrecked, stranded, cast away, picked up at sea, and American seamen

who come upon a consulate, in a destitute condition, for relief, otherwise than in the employment of American vessels.

2. Seamen whose wages, regular and extra, or either, by reason of long-continued illness, or the failure to find employment without their fault, have been expended, according to law, by the consul.

The foregoing are the only exceptions which, in my opinion, should entitle a seaman to advance wages on being engaged. With an advance from $15 to $20 he can buy such garments and effects as he needs at sea, much cheaper (from 100 to 200 per cent. at least) than on board the ship he is about to join. "Slop-chest merchandise," as a rule, is very costly, and he will have enough left for drink, if he wants to, and to pay for a boat to take him on board.

A seaman not destitute, *i. e.*, whose wages have not been expended for his relief, so the balance paid him by the consul amounts to about $15, needs no advance wages on shipping, and very often he does not ask for any, most certainly not in this port at least.

A. G. STUDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Singapore, Straits Settlements.

CANADIAN SENTIMENT IN REGARD TO THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL LELAND, OF HAMILTON, ONTARIO.

I have the honor to herewith transmit press notices from the leading Canadian papers, which express the average sentiment of the Canadians in reference to the United States Navy, the attitude of the United States on the Egyptian question, &c. The policy of the Canadian Government and press upon all kindred questions is to build up, sustain, and extend, at all hazards, British ascendency on this side of the line, and to crush out in its infancy any sentiment which in any sense favors republicanism. The herculean efforts which are now being made to build up and people Manitoba, and make it an additional wheat-growing and bread-supplying dependency of England, is but a "part and parcel" of this general British-Canadian policy.

FRANK LELAND,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hamilton, Canada, July 20, 1882.

THE EAGLE SCREECHES.

[From the Spectator of July 13, 1882.]

The brave American commander in Egyptian waters, Rear-Admiral Nicholson, has been "whooping it up lively" for Arabi's followers. Superciliously disregarding the paltry navies of England and France, he submitted a sort of an independent ultimatum to the military governor of Alexandria. It should be explained that Nicholson commands two or three fourth-rate tubs, designated by courtesy "the American fleet," which now float recklessly around in the neighborhood of Alexandria. To say that they are war vessels would be to do violence even to the most elastic imagination. The Lancaster is an old second-rate unarmored tub, provided with cannon of the most approved revolutionary war pattern; the Galena is a few shades worse, and is exceedingly decrepit; the Nipsic is a pronounced maritime invalid, and is generally seen in

the tow of some able-bodied tug; while the Quinnebaug is mainly preserved as an antediluvian relic, its boards having been laid, it is said, contemporaneously with the ark.

It appears that Admiral Nicholson, the proud commander of these formidable coffins, considered the English admiral's notification to the Egyptian authorities as highly presumptuous. He considered that the time allowed before the beginning of the bombardment, only twenty-four hours, was entirely too short to permit the American navy to be towed out of danger. His ships are built on a peculiar plan. They can neither fight nor run away. In order that this opinion may not seem to be the outcome of national prejudice, the following from a New York paper will show what the well-informed American opinion of the American navy is:

"The meanest screw in the French, Spanish, or English navies could overtake or outstrip them, while an ordinary fourth-rate iron-clad could pepper them to pieces at a distance far beyond the reach of the old fashioned short-range guns."

But Nicholson is a true American, of the same stripe as the gory backwoods Pennsylvania editor, and he rose to the occasion. He felt that the eye of the eagle was upon him, and that it was necessary for him to do something for his country in this great emergency. Accordingly he notified Arabi Bey that if the forts opened fire on the American vessels he would actually return the fire! Before sending this courageous warning Mr. Nicholson doubtless loaded and primed his trusty flint-lock, oiled the spring of his bright-barreled Springfield muzzle-loading rifle, and braced himself in position to blow Alexandria to the source of the Nile if Arabi dared to insult the American eagle by pointing his guns at the helpless American navy. The American navy got out of range before the trouble commenced; but Arabi Bey, a man by no means deficient in courage himself, must have been awed to see Nicholson heroically pacing up and down on the poop of the American flagship, pop in hand, ready to annihilate the northern district of Egypt on the slightest provocation.

Before the sanguinary Pennsylvania editor undertakes anything rash he should tie a good strong string around the American navy to prevent it falling to pieces.

This is a fair sample of the lying indulged in by American immigration agents, interested in populating their cyclone-destroyed, flooded, grasshopper-devastated western country. Everybody in this country knows the paragraph quoted to be a tissue of lies, hanging on the slimmest possible thread of truth. But it is no wonder that the Americans publish these things.

The Montreal Star is moved to remark that even war has its comic side. The amusing features of the bombardment of Alexandria are to be found, not at the seat of war, but in the comments of the American press. Brother Jonathan, of course, has a perfect right to express all the sympathy he feels with the Egyptians, and to feel as much sympathy as he can, but it is a little childish to allow the jealousy of England to be so apparent. The New York World has come to the conclusion that the casualties on board the British fleet came not from the muzzles of the Egyptian guns, but from the breech of the British cannon. The American papers do not agree upon motives for censuring England, but they are tolerably unanimous in finding fault.

The tornadoes continue their work of destruction in Mr. Blake's paradise in the Western States, and what little is left by the cyclones bids fair to be eaten by grasshoppers. Ontario people may congratulate themselves on living in a country where the greatest pest is the Grit.

[From The Globe of July 14.]

A humorous "Alexandria dispatch" to or from the New York Herald says that American officers are disgusted with the slowness of the Britishers, and assert that they could have shut up the forts in half the time that was taken. The truth is that Canada with the Charybdis would have cut a more respectable figure at Alexandria than did the American fleet. The latter consisted of the Lancaster (flag-ship), Quinnebaug, and Galena. The first is a small screw steamer of 2,120 tons—about one-third the tonnage of the latest Allan liners—carrying ten guns. The Galena is a screw vessel of 910 tons, and would make an excellent canaler for the unenlarged Welland. The other is a screw steamer of 1,900 tons carrying eight guns. The guns of all three vessels are old-fashioned 11-inch Dahlgrens. Those of the Lancaster have been converted into rifles, and, as such, carry 180-pound shot propelled with 25 pounds of powder. The guns of the other vessels are smooth-bores. We are indebted to the Chicago Tribune for these particulars. We forgot to add that the American squadron is entirely unarmored; in fact, minus its engines and boilers, would not have appeared an anachronism in the war of 1812. It was with these terrors of the ocean that Admiral Nicholson was going to reduce Alexandria to ashes before Arabi Pasha could mention Jack Robinson. It will be remembered also that Admiral Nicholson also announced before the shooting began that if the Egyptians hit him he should hit them again. Lucky thing for the Egyptians that the American butter-tubs took an early opportunity of steaming out of harm's way.

TRADE BETWEEN CHATHAM, ONTARIO, AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT BUFFINGTON.

EXPORTS.

The value of declared exports to the United States from this consular district shows a steady increase. For the year ending June 30, 1881, the increase over the preceding year was, at Chatham, $96,816; at Wallaceburg, $50,792.03—making a total of $147,608.03. The increase over this for the year ending June 30, 1882, is $226,170.26, of which $123,972.19 was at Chatham, and $102,298.07 was at Wallaceburg.

The greatest increase in the exports from Chatham was in sugar pipe-staves, barrel hoops, staves, headings, and linings, which show a gain over last year of $96,684.84. The manufacture of this class of goods is a new industry commenced here about three years since, and is growing rapidly into a large business. But one manufactory for this class of goods was in operation here three years ago; now, there are six for the manufacture of staves, and two for hoops and headings.

IMPORTS.

The total value of dutiable goods imported from the United States and entered here for Canadian consumption for the year ending June 30, 1882, amounts to $105,050, classified as follows:

Baking powders	$666 00
Books	1,621 00
Breadstuffs	323 00
Brick and tiles	1,249 00
Carriages, and parts of	2,381 00
Coal	12,066 00
Cottons	13,772 00
Fruits	6,297 00
Glass-ware	747 00
Gold and silver plated ware	1,473 00
Hats and caps	1,039 00
Iron, hardware, &c	20,543 00
Sewing and other machines	5,316 00
Musical instruments	4,404 00
Oils	586 00
Provisions	16,212 00
Printing presses	1,292 00
Wood furniture	4,923 00
Miscellaneous	10,140 00
Total	105,050 00
Value of free goods imported from the United States for same period	37,411 00
Total of imports	142,461 00

The imports the preceding year were—

Dutiable goods	$96,710 00	
Free goods	7,166 00	
		$103,876 00
Increase for year ending June 30, 1882		38,585 00

The total value of goods imported from England for year ending June 30, 1882, entered at this port, was $13,405, of which $12,502 were dutiable, and $903 free.

The total value of American goods imported into this district is not shown by the figures given above. They represent only what are entered at this port. It is impossible to get at the exact amount brought here, but in the judgment of leading merchants of Chatham, fully sixty per cent. may be added to the above for goods brought here bought from importers at Hamilton and Toronto.

The increase in cotton goods entered at this port for the current year over the year ending June 30, 1881, is $1,992, and of hardware $6,026. Upon inquiry I learn that the quantity of cottons of American manufacture bought from importers at other points is considerably in excess of last year. Though they are from two to three cents per yard dearer here than those of Canadian manufacture, yet their superior quality creates quite a demand for them.

Kerosene oil.—Kerosene oil of American manufacture is increasing in popularity in this market, and although it is 5 cents per gallon higher than Canadian, the quantity sold is steadily increasing.

Emigration.—Notwithstanding the prosperous times prevailing here, the tide of emigration to the United States from this district increases. For the year ending June 30, 1881, ninety-seven emigrant certificates were issued from this office, and for the year ending June 30, 1882, one hundred and twenty-eight were issued.

Cereals.—The wheat crop in this country is larger than for many years past. Of fall wheat there are 59,858 acres, and the estimated yield is 1,290,058; spring wheat 486 acres, estimated yield 9,465 bushels. Of barley there are 6,956 acres, and an estimated yield of 180,592 bushels. Oats, 26,791 acres, estimated yield 984,198 bushels.

The wet and cold weather in June seriously affected the corn crop; so much so, that in the judgment of those well informed it will not be more than half an average crop.

H. C. BUFFINGTON,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Chatham, Ontario, July 27, 1882.

EXPORTS FROM PORT SARNIA TO THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL PACE.

The value of declared exports from Port Sarnia to the United States during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, as the accompanying tables will show, was $634,235.15, being an increase of $53,341.48 over the preceding year.

The trade of this port is of course liable to fluctuation, as in the item of exports the barley product must be considered a prominent and important feature, and the very excellent yield of that cereal for 1881 helped very materially to swell the value of exports during the first half of the last fiscal year. A much greater increase in the value of exports is shown in the returns from the London agency. The increase in value of exports from London for the year is shown to be $355,720.56, and to the barley yield of 1881 must also be attributed this marked difference in value over the preceding year. For the present year I look for a falling off in the value of barley shipments; the yield has been great, but the long-continued rains, which occurred in this latitude during the period of harvest, has greatly depreciated the value of the product by

taking from it that peculiar brightness of color which is so highly prized by the maltster.

SAMUEL D. PACE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Port Sarnia, September 29, 1882.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the United States consulate at Port Sarnia to the United States during the four quarters of the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Quarter ending—				Total for the year.
	September 30, 1881.	December 31, 1881.	March 31, 1882.	June 30, 1882.	
Animals of all kinds	$19,350 00	$28,106 00	$21,900 00	$24,565 00	$93,861 00
Apples	.....	7,149 00	1,382 00	2,200 00	10,731 00
Bones	.....	.....	.....	260 00	260 00
Cedar ties	1,063 80	.....	.....	.....	1,063 80
Engines and boilers	350 00	982 00	.....	848 00	2,180 00
Eggs	2,131 08	1,679 00	1,860 25	380 39	6,050 72
Fish	7,679 57	250 00	550 00	1,562 00	22,028 57
Furs	200 00	468 00	820 00	.....	1,270 00
Flax	361 00	152,698 00	889 65	.....	1,718 65
Grain of all kinds	1,628 00	630 50	30,067 00	3,899 00	188,292 00
Hides	331 00	14,280 75	784 00	170 00	1,915 50
Lumber and timber	15,027 00	99,840 00	2,516 32	8,260 00	40,084 07
Personal effects	17,468 00	5,352 25	35,240 00	21,820 00	174,368 00
Potatoes	1,186 25	.....	8,164 65	7,459 00	22,162 15
Potash	.....	.....	120 00	816 20	636 20
Paper stock	1,450 00	2,910 40	2,156 22	920 00	7,436 62
Scrap iron	10,388 71	2,830 30	10,751 91	1,452 61	25,423 53
Silver ore	.....	.....	.....	3,582 96	3,582 96
Stone	4,220 00	236 00	.....	.....	4,462 00
Tan-bark	.....	.....	.....	400 00	400 00
Wool	4,986 43	.....	.....	1,021 95	6,008 38
Total	87,826 84	329,649 20	117,202 00	99,557 11	634,235 15
Corresponding period, 1881	53,212 68	309,788 12	68,630 65	149,262 22	.....
Increase	34,614 16	19,861 08	48,571 35	.....	53,341 48
Decrease	.....	.....	.....	49,705 11	.....

EXPORTS FROM NOTTINGHAM TO THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSULAR AGENT SMITH.

I have the honor to forward herewith the statement showing the value of declared exports from this consular district to the United States, during the four quarters of the year ending September 30, 1882.

By this statement it appears that the declared value of the exports from this district to the United States during the year was $9,774,548.65; the value for the year ended September 30, 1881, was $8,467,304.18, showing an increase of $1,307,244.47.

As the business of the year ended September 30, 1881, was a large advance upon that of any previous one, I did not expect the increase shown in this statement. When the business of the last year is compared with that of the previous one, it will be seen that the shipments have increased over 200 per cent. The statement shows a small decrease during the last quarter, amounting to $104,794.96. In lace goods there was a falling off of $539,880; but there was an increase in the article of hosiery of $149,313, which, together with an increase in some other articles, reduced the deficiency to the amount named.

I call attention to the large increase in "salted skins," from $364,369.37 to $687,090.65; and also to the fact that the exports of china and earthen ware have advanced from $1,524 to $12,763; the increase in both cases being shipments from Derby, at which place I have asked the privilege of establishing an agency. I think the trade from that place will be much larger for the current year, as the china works have been only lately established there, and are but opening their trade with the United States.

The trade of this consular district having increased more than three-fold in the last five years, I do not anticipate any further enlargement thereof in the immediate future.

JASPER SMITH,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Nottingham, October 10, 1882.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the counslar district of Nottingham to the United States during the four quarters of the year ending September 30, 1882.

Articles.	Quarter ending—				Total for the year.
	December 30, 1881.	March 31, 1882.	June 30, 1882.	September 30, 1882.	
Lace goods	$1,810,771 00	$2,280,719 00	$1,579,583 00	$1,557,611 00	$7,228,684 00
Hosiery	161,772 00	424,329 00	149,805 00	516,928 00	1,252,834 00
Muslins	6,783 50	21,130 00	12,365 00	4,263 00	44,541 50
Linens	10,088 00	8,686 50	4,915 16	73,182 50	96,872 16
White goods	10,531 00	13,422 00			23,953 00
Crape	17,631 50				17,631 00
Elastic goods	24,449 50	36,785 00	30,649 00	30,610 00	122,493 50
Machinery	10,575 00	13,300 00	18,044 50	6,098 00	48,017 50
Salted skins	161,022 75	129,378 00	168,298 00	228,391 90	687,090 65
Dried skins	1,300 00				1,300 00
Leather	34,459 00	21,938 00	25,115 50	15,232 14	96,744 64
Venetian red	779 00	2,807 00	1,246 00	1,713 00	6,545 00
Ale	540 00		394 00	2,156 00	3,090 00
Terra alba	934 00	506 00			1,440 00
Silk	2,949 20	1,781 00		4,068 00	8,798 20
Oxide of iron	4,312 00	3,635 00	4,165 00	4,088 00	16,200 00
Cottons	2,141 00	48,129 00	10,467 00	10,915 00	71,652 00
China and earthen ware	4,004 00	1,732 00	1,781 00	5,246 00	12,763 00
Oil paintings	1,723 00	837 00			2,560 00
Colcothar			1,747 00	1,406 00	3,153 00
Miscellaneous	3,674 00	6,355 00	10,230 00	7,926 00	28,185 00
Total	2,270,439 45	3,015,469 50	2,018,805 16	2,469,834 54	9,774,548 65
Total of last year	1,605,464 45	2,603,526 41	1,583,683 82	2,674,629 50	8,467,304 18
Increase	666,975 00	411,943 09	435,121 34		1,307,244 47
Decrease				104,794 96	

AMERICAN TRADE WITH THE BERMUDAS.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT WILLIAMS, OF ST. GEORGE, ON THE BEST MEANS FOR ENLARGING THE TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND BERMUDA.

The imports and exports of this port are not separated from those of Hamilton, and as it is impossible to ascertain their exact value, reference to the report of the consul at that port will afford the information desired in regard to their character and amount.

The trade of this port forms an essential part of the sum total therein

compiled, but the exact proportion is even less material to those interested in increasing the American trade than to those preparing the statistics.

THE HARBOR OF ST. GEORGE.

The harbor of St. George is the best and most accessible of these islands. It admits readily of the entrance of vessels of 18 or 20 feet draft, and could be cheaply improved so as to admit those of greater draft. All distressed vessels and steamers in want of coal and supplies avail themselves of its advantages. The Cunard line plying between Halifax, St. Thomas, and Jamaica, make this their port of entry for Bermuda.

AN AMERICAN STEAMSHIP LINE WANTED.

The Gulf Port and Quebec Steamship Company, subsidized by the colony to carry the mail between New York and the Bermuda Islands, pass this island, and enter by a tortuous channel the harbor of Hamilton, the seat of government.

The mails thus oftentimes pass St. George twenty-four hours before they are delivered here, and this without fault of the post-office officials, whom I have never found derelict of their duty.

The community have been much aroused on the subject of replacing the present Quebec and Montreal Steamship Company with a line owned and controlled by themselves, alleging as a reason that the interests of the inhabitants and the transportation company would then be identical, and that they would be alike sharers of the profits of the crops and their transportation, and that they then could establish rates for carrying passengers which would induce a larger number to visit these islands.

No certainty exists at present that sufficient unanimity will prevail to effect their object. The receipt of £38,000 sterling, published by the Quebec and Montreal line as their gross receipts for a year for semi-monthly trips to and from New York, with a few weekly trips of a freight-boat during the crop season, indicates profitable investment. It has occurred to me, in view of the large profits of this transportation and the trade advantages to be derived from it, that if American capital and enterprise combined with that of these islanders, the undertaking must be successful and mutually profitable. The trip should be made in fifty hours, which is twenty-four hours less than the time required by the steamer at present employed. This would be easy to accomplish, and require only an average speed of 13 miles per hour, which is less than that of our coasting steamers.

This would increase travel and trade, and, as nearly every article consumed here is the product of the United States, this foreign travel would not be altogether profitless. A steamer with passengers and freight coming to Bermuda might be compared to a large party of picknickers providing for their wants for several days or weeks.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE BERMUDAS.

The exports of these islands are chiefly arrowroot, potatoes, onions, and other vegetables, of which the United States are the principal consumers. The crop has been fair this year, and the prices remunerative. Other crops are receiving attention, among these notably strawberries,

which can be abundantly grown, are of fine flavor, ripen here in mid-winter, and could be profitably shipped to the United States.

The imports are about two-thirds from the United States and the remainder from Great Britain and the Canadian colonies, with the exception of a small quantity, about $80,000, from Demerara, Barbadoes, St. Thomas, and other neighboring islands, consisting principally of sugar, molasses, gin, rum, &c. The imports, exclusive of articles for military use and not subject to duty, aggregate about $200,000. The exports are about $350,000. The tariff of 5 per cent. on articles in general, with higher rates on liquor and tobacco, favoring no nation, bears lightly and judiciously upon the people.

The industries of these islands are chiefly planting, and the repairing of distressed vessels. The military and naval forces resident here, by their expenditures, are an important element in the trade of these islands. From the governor to the laborer, all depend upon receiving the greater part of their supplies from abroad.

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE.

I would reiterate the opinion expressed previously that the hindrances to a more complete absorption of this trade by the United States are the want of exchange, the carelessness of the American merchants, and the purchase of goods through commission houses. In regard to the first cause, it could be readily obviated by establishing a banking agency with moderate capital. Halifax has since my last writing established such a banking agency, and its effects are already apparent. The carelessness of American merchants arises in a great measure from their receiving orders through commission houses. The merchant or dealer in the United States does not know or communicate directly with the merchant here, and consequently many desirable articles are entirely withheld from this market.

New goods and improvements find their way here very slowly. The mode of purchase is expensive and unsatisfactory. All goods cost too much, are held too high in price, and inferior articles at high rates are substituted for better articles, and consumption is thus circumscribed. The Bermudian merchant visiting the United States seeks his commission merchant, overlooks his account, enters his order, then becomes a sight-seer, and passes the store of the merchant from whom his supplies are drawn without being cognizant of the fact.

A gradually increasing number of merchants admit the importance of direct dealing and act accordingly. The Bermudian merchant always assumes his right to a profit regardless of the caprices of the market. He is no speculator, and seldom makes large purchases, as there are no fluctuations in the price of freight; and as every article of food, clothing, and furniture deteriorates rapidly in this climate, their orders are light and frequent. As a class, no more reliable merchants exist anywhere.

The intercommunication of American and Bermudian merchants or their representatives is not frequent enough. The merchant and dealer from the United States omit visiting their customers, ascertaining their wants, introducing by sample novelties, bringing to their notice improvements, and in various ways facilitating a direct trade. No machines more intricate than the shovel and the hoe find a market here.

A CHANCE FOR QUARRY MACHINERY.

These islands consist of a soft sandstone, more or less impregnated with lime. This constitutes the building material, is found everywhere

and is inexhaustible. It is a soft, loose material, the buildings of which, when the interstices are filled by being periodically lime washed, will last for ages in this climate. A sleety storm with frost would render it a sand heap in one night. No man here is so rich or poor that he does not inhabit a stone mansion. The roofs are tiled with it, and the division walls are constructed of it. This material of universal necessity is all quarried and sawed by hand. The labor is not only excessive, but great delay is unavoidable in procuring the sawed stone and tile. The channeling process, by which the large block of stone is detached from the mass of rock, has never been successfully performed by the machinery in sandstone quarries, and it is doubtful whether it ever can be, as the chisel does not free itself as readily as in marble quarries. This objection must apply to these quarries. The improved windmill might effectually be employed in sawing the blocks after they were detached, and for the use of derricks to handle large blocks. I mention this power as more economical, as water-sheds and tanks require to be constructed, and coal imported, if steam is applied. In this connection I will add that the colonial parliament have resolved to build a new governor's mansion, and this would afford an excellent opportunity for the introduction of an improved mode of preparing the stone. The mechanic who would perform this simple feat should come with his machine and clearly demonstrate its practicability and economy, and if it proved labor-saving it would meet with profitable sale.

AIDS TO COMMERCE.

I have endeavored to give a brief commercial glimpse of these islands, and can offer no better advice to merchants than to come and see or send for themselves.

The aid afforded by the State Department of the United States, in its varied instructions to consuls and the publication and circulation of their reports, and the valuable assistance of the many able and creditable journals which reach every consulate, cannot be too highly appreciated; but while thus persistently directing notice to a variety of subjects and arresting the attention of interested readers everywhere, they merely pave the way; the merchant and manufacturer must follow in order to succeed.

CHARLES P. WILLIAMS,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
St. George, Bermuda, July 18, 1882.

THE POULTRY AND EGG TRADE OF EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL TANNER, OF LIEGE, BELGIUM.

EGG IMPORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

A glance at the London Board of Trade returns shows that England receives almost her entire supply of eggs from France. Holland and Belgium contribute, but only in a slight degree, to the enormous quantity of eggs consumed in England. The tables which I have the honor to submit herewith are compiled from the Board of Trade returns, and they

will show the rapidity of increase in importation as well as the advance in prices. From the Board of Trade returns for March it appears that no less than 199,922,640 eggs, valued at about $3,000,000, were imported into England during the first three months of the present year. I can see no earthly reason why American farmers should not share in the benefits of this trade.

Statement showing the imports of eggs into Great Britain from 1856 to 1879.

Years.	Number.	Value.	Average price per 120 eggs.
1856	117, 230, 600	$1, 392, 110	$1 60
1858	113, 685, 000	1, 518, 085	1 60
1860	167, 095, 400	2, 383, 290	1 95
1862	232, 321, 200	2, 969, 065	1 80
1864	339, 298, 240	4, 175, 140	1 85
1866	438, 878, 880	5, 528, 265	1 90
1868	383, 969, 040	5, 046, 425	2 00
1870	430, 842, 240	5, 104, 000	2 00
1872	405, 701, 040	6, 970, 760	2 25
1874	538, 087, 440	14, 593, 625	2 30
1875	580, 212, 360	10, 393, 295	2 25
1876	502, 534, 800	9, 320, 675	2 35
1877	441, 369, 920	8, 010, 190	2 30
1878	448, 190, 400	7, 998, 880	2 25
879	412, 935, 720	9, 958, 045	2 00

POULTRY AND EGG INDUSTRY IN FRANCE.

It would appear that 15 or 16 eggs are annually imported from France for every head of population in Great Britain; and when it is taken into consideration that France imports no eggs from other countries for home consumption, the importance of this trade to France will at once be apparent. When it is estimated that the importation of eggs from all sources into England amounted to $12,177,750 for the year 1881, and though poultry thrive nowhere so well as they do in the United States, it seems strange that the American farmer has no share in this commerce. I will show, further on, the trouble and expense the European farmer is at in keeping his poultry—a trouble and expense not known to the American, because my experience has been that poultry in America thrive just as well on their "own hook" as when they are fed. The hens lay as well and are not subject to the numerous diseases known to the breeders of poultry here. Who would ever think in the United States of having shepherds or guards for their poultry, and not only that but veterinary surgeons? In France such things are known, and all large poultry-raisers have a guard for their fowls. In 1881 it is estimated that 792,000,000 eggs were imported into England, or about two dozen for each man, woman, and child. "If we reckon the population of France at 37,000,000, we find that for every individual in France one dozen eggs are imported into England, and computing, five persons to each family in France, the British public pays to every six families an annual sum of over $5 for eggs," which I propose to show should not only go to the United States, but that we should supply France itself with eggs. It will be perceived from what I have just quoted that France must produce annually a grand total of nearly 2,000,000,000 eggs. The total value for poultry and eggs I estimate at nearly $75,000,000. A million or two short of this I may admit, but not more, and this does not materailly effect the great result.

In only a few instances is this great result achieved by large pro-

ducers. In most instances the middleman pops up and collects the eggs from numerous small producers and exports them to England. The egg-producing districts of France are principally Normandy, Picardy, Artois, Soissonnais, Vexin, and Brittany.

In each and all of these places every farmer gives close attention to his poultry and is rewarded by only small profits, the middleman coming in for his share. Nearly every farmer has a reserve for his poultry, and as I said before, some one to keep watch over them. Good care is given to the roosting place to have it dry, and in most instances near a stable, because a stable is always warm, and the manure in that way is easily utilized, which is no mean item to the French farmer, who has an eye to everything, not even allowing a feather to be lost. Besides the reserve the fowls are fed twice a day with oats or wheat. It will be seen that in my dispatches, in speaking of agriculture, I always take a Southern standpoint and treat matters in this line from that. This is simply because I know no other agriculture, being a Southern man. I think our poultry does better when allowed to shift for themselves and pick up their food wherever they can find it. When fed they become too fat and lazy to lay. A fat fowl does not lay as many eggs as one in a tolerably fair condition, and chickens or other fowls are in this respect like men, they must take a certain amount of exercise in order to thrive well. In France the condition for fowls is not favorable. The running feed that the American fowl finds as a reward for his industry the French fowl misses, and hence must be fed. The climate is damp and cold, therefore special attention must be paid to the roosting place, that owing to more favorable conditions of climate is not necessary in the United States. An American fowl does just as well, and in my opinion better, in a tree than closed up in a house, if provisions are taken to protect it from its well-known enemies, and those precautions are very simple. I have "raised" a great many and a great variety of fowls, and my observation has led me to the conclusion that fowls do better when not closed up in a house as a roosting place.

Nature has made the fowl for the air as manifestly as the fish for water, and my experience has been, when you take them out of their native climate, in proportion they become sickly, diseased, and hampered in their production, and I am convinced that the more food is given them the more you fit them for the table, but not as producers of eggs. I mention these things more to show the numerous troubles that the American farmer can avoid which are known to the French, as well as the expenses incidental to such troubles. I am aware that there are grave and serious obstacles in the way of the American farmer in competing with the French. The greatest is the transportation and the time required in transporting the eggs so as to preserve their freshness. In this one respect the French farmer has a decided advantage; but with the proper arrangements on our steamers, American eggs can be placed in Liverpool, Antwerp, Havre, Bremen, and other European ports in almost as fresh a condition as when they left the United States. I have been informed by captains of steamers that ply between America and Europe that they supply themselves with eggs for the voyage in America, and that they last during the round trip. This being the case, this obstacle of time and transportation is not a serious one.

PROFITS OF POULTRY-RAISING.

It is estimated that the French farmer realizes a profit from his poultry ranging from 17 per cent. to 50; in some cases it has gone as high

as 85 per cent., though the average is not much above 20 per cent. This is an excellent showing for a pretty, easy, and interesting industry, where a man can nurse his laziness and at the same time make money. It has been estimated by Frenchmen who have investigated this matter closely, that one hen can lay in three years 450 eggs, or 150 per annum, and that by doing this she pays for herself twice in the time, leaving a double profit on the eggs that she has given her owner, and returning him the capital originally invested in her purchase at the end of the time when she is sent to the market, as it is supposed that after passing that period when she is no longer useful as an egg producer, is the best time and age for the table. The interest of rent of land, cost of building for roost of fowls, guard or care-takers for fowls, loss by death from diseases, &c., which is very heavy in France, much more so than in the United States, will more than make the difference in cost of freight from America to Europe, and place the American eggs on the English market cheaper than the French eggs. This is the one great thing that will tell in the long run in favor of the American farmer.

POULTRY AND EGG INDUSTRY IN ENGLAND.

In England, M. T. Mainwaring has published an account of his experience as a poultry "raiser," from which I see that from at an outlay of £137 15*s*. 4*d*. he has reaped a profit of £19 6*s*., and this in a climate as dismal and cheerless and uncongenial to poultry as it is to vegetation, where the greatest care must be taken, and expenses incurred to which the American farmer is an utter stranger. Where can a business be produced that can make a better show of profits than this? I copy the following from Mr. Mainwaring's statement in order to show the best breeds of fowls as producers of eggs:

Mr. Mainwaring's egg account for the month of January, 1882.

House.	Breed.	When hatched.	No. of eggs laid.
1	34 black hamburgs	March and April, 1881	423
2	32 andalusians	do	242
3	16 langshans	May 30, 1881	93
4	94 crossbreds	March and April, 1881	78
5	16 light brahams	May 4, 1881	47
6	25 brown leghorns 10 andalusians 7 black hamburgs	April, 1880	20
7	97 houdans	March and April, 1881	418
8	3 dorkins	April, 1881	9
	336		1,330

This table shows a large percentage in favor of the hamburgs in house No. 1. Mr. Mainwaring, beyond question, shows that the hamburgs are the best egg producers. Another statement from London shows equally the superior merits of this bird, the average being in London 139 per hen for the year. The same breed of fowls under the more congenial and more stimulating climate of America, I am sure, would average more than this, with no expense or attention more than the purchase of the fowl. This same account goes on to show that a profit of £1 was realized on an outlay of £4. I could go on without end to show the enormous profits in this industry here in Europe. The statistics have been collected by me in valuable statements and tables, but I have abridged this report as much as possible, and tried to con-

fine myself to the most important facts. I have known this breed of fowls in Georgia (the Hamburg) to lay as many as two eggs a day, and with a little attention to keep them from sitting I believe that they could be made to produce in most of our American States from 270 to 295 eggs per annum. The price of eggs in England ranges from 22 cents to 35 cents per dozen, but it is seldom that it is as low as the former. In 1881 the price stood at 50 cents for almost the entire year, and has been on the increase for a number of years. Now let me suppose that the American fowl will not average more than the English fowl, and let me suppose that eggs are only 15 cents a dozen, the 139 eggs (English hen's average) is eleven dozen eggs at 15 cents, $1.65. If eggs should be cheap as 15 cents, the fowl would be proportionately cheap, not more than 25 or 30 cents; but here is a handsome profit even if the hen should have cost one dollar, and the hen remains, there being no loss in the commodity in which the money was invested.

AMERICAN TURKEYS AND CHICKENS FOR EUROPE.

Thus far I have said nothing about the raising of poultry. There ought to be equally a market found for the American turkey and chickens, in most of the European states. The turkey is never seen here on the table except in rare cases, such as wedding feasts and the like, save of course for the tables of the opulent. In America it is no dearer than the chicken in proportion to its size; I am as sure of its being a marketable fowl in Europe as I am of its being in America, with a little effort on the part of our exporters. There are thousands of well-to-do people in Europe that have never tasted this fowl, and I have traveled in most of the European countries, and dined many times at the *table d'hôte* of the best hotels here, and never in my life have I seen it on the table. Now this is a strange fact, that this bird that so justly ranks as the first for our tables in point of merit should be almost unknown in Europe, while it is within reach, and frequently forms part of the dinner of our laboring classes in America. It is manifestly for the want of effort on our part that this is the case, and I sincerely hope that this effort will be made, and that the American turkey will one day be as well known here as the American hog.

I have, for the sake of brevity, abstained from producing the numerous tables I have been at the trouble to collect, showing the immense profits in a business of this kind here in Europe. Those who know the European climate, know how unfavorable it is, know the expenses that attach to raising poultry here, can at once see the immense advantage the American poulterer has over the European. He has this advantage in everything if it could but be followed up. His fowls, which can be "raised" with little or no effort on his part, can be made comparatively as great a source of revenue to him as the hog, or his wheat or cotton.

GEORGE C. TANNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Vervier and Liege, Belgium.

AMERICAN TRANSIT TRADE THROUGH CANADA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT DUTCHER, OF PORT HOPE.

There is scarcely a subject upon which Canadians are more exercised than the great northwest, and the facilities which its development will afford them of successfully competing with the United States.

The Canadian Pacific Railway, they claim, will render the northwest the "land of promise," in unfolding its resources as a superior grazing and grain-growing country, besides being in the future an outlet to the Pacific coast. It is estimated that from the province of Ontario alone 40,000 have emigrated thither during the past year.

The Canadians are certainly on the alert to develop whatever may be valuable in their country. Since the completion of the Welland Canal, connecting Lakes Ontario and Erie, they expect to be able materially to influence the shipping interest. They say that, with a continuous waterway from Chicago to Quebec, they must attract the trade to the Saint Lawrence. Indeed, some of their papers claim that one-half of the trade of Chicago already goes by that route. They seem confident that, with such superior advantages, New York will not be a formidable rival, and that the major part of the immense trade of our own northwest centering in Chicago will be placed on board English vessels at Montreal, and transported direct to some European port; and this highway once established, no Congressional legislation can permanently affect the results.

J. C. DUTCHER,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Port Hope, July 31, 1882.

TRADE AND INDUSTRIES OF PORT HOPE.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT DUTCHER.

Port Hope, as viewed from a business standpoint, is among the first in importance, on Lake Ontario, as a shipping point for lumber. Its facilities for this purpose are unexceptionable.

The Midland Railway is in almost daily demand, transporting lumber direct from Georgian Bay to its capacious wharves. During the quarter ending June 30th of the present year there was shipped from this place to different American ports $407,598 worth of lumber, besides large quantities of barley, wheat, rye, &c. The Midland Railway Company have quite recently erected an elevator of some 125,000 bushels capacity; there is another of less size which is about being purchased by the same company; also another, rapidly drawing toward completion, belonging to one of the most enterprising citizens of the place; and, as a consequence, it is expected that there will be a gradually increasing traffic in grain to the different Canadian and American ports.

Arrangements are nearly completed, also, for the erection of a cotton mill, to be known as the "Hope Cotton Company." The building will be 80 by 200 feet, four stories with basement, and run 15,000 spindles.

They will manufacture colored cottons, shirtings, ticks, and denims. They say that the northwest depends principally upon Ontario for supplies; hence their prospect of success. They are, however, very solicitous for enterprising American capitalists to settle among them, with a view to the establishment of factories. In conversation with some of the prominent citizens, they expressed themselves earnestly upon the subject.

Trade between Port Hope and the United States.

Year.	Exports to the United States.	Imports from the United States.
1879	$889,163	$81,567
1880	1,492,458	64,413
1881	1,918,368	114,501

J. C. DUTCHER,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Port Hope, July 31, 1882.

TRADE BETWEEN SONNEBERG AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT OF CONSUL MORTON B. WHARTON.

As will be seen from the appended statement, the export trade from this district to the United States is ever on the increase. The total amount for the year ending September 30, 1881, was $1,810,156.92; that for the year ending September 30, 1882, $2,077,689.83, showing an increase during the present over the past year of $267,532.91. This has been caused by the great prosperity existing in the United States, and the increased facilities here for meeting the demand.

Much interest is still felt on the subject of toy coloring, and a large congress has recently been held in Nüremburg on the subject which was attended by a deputation from the Chamber of Commerce in Sonneberg. The whole matter is still undergoing investigation, and it is hoped that a satisfactory conclusion will soon be reached.

A congress of the German foresters, containing about three hundred members, has recently been held in Coburg, but nothing new, so far as I could learn, was developed. Much attention has been given to this subject for the past three centuries in Germany, and with the most satisfactory results. It would be well, I think, for the United States to adopt similar methods for preserving the forests, particularly of our older States. Colleges here are organized for the express purpose of training men for this important work.

But few goods are imported into this district from the United States direct, though large quantities are received through Hamburg houses. The principal American goods used here are stoves, sewing-machines, agricultural implements, and canned goods. American stoves and sewing-machines are imitated all over Germany. Here in Coburg nearly all prefer the "Amerikanischer Ofen," but on inquiry I find they are all made at Nüremburg. Not much American meat is consumed here, as hogs are raised in large numbers in Thuringia, and many are imported from Bavaria and Hungary.

I append herewith a statement of declared exports from the district of Sonneberg to the United States during the year ending September 30, 1882.

MORTON B. WHARTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sonneberg, September 30, 1882.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Sonneberg to the United States during the year ending September 30, 1882.

Articles.	Quarter ending—				Total for the year.
	December 31, 1881.	March 31, 1882.	June 30, 1882.	September 30, 1882.	
Baskets	$500 06	$1, 890 31	$861 61	$4. 194 17	$7, 446 15
Brass lamps	.....	2, 279 45	1, 501 60	1, 352 19	5, 133 24
China goods	71, 915 81	62, 985 87	187, 538 62	284, 836 84	607, 277 14
Dolls and other toys	58, 308 71	41, 828 15	204, 190 01	257, 732 23	562, 059 10
Drugs	2, 962 97	847 12	1, 179 81	1, 242 39	6, 232 29
Fancy glassware	2, 975 21	1, 498 95	.....	.....	4, 474 16
Glassware	18, 059 69	25, 457 37	22, 995 42	38, 876 21	105, 3:8 69
Guns	7, 366 23	4, 176 68	6, 769 01	7, 618 57	25, 930 49
Hardware	.....	3, 798 95	1, 759 24	2, 775 94	8, 334 13
Hosiery (cotton)	125, 278 40	130, 659 48	123, 523 27	97, 244 13	477, 005 28
Kid gloves	474 86	854 00	.....	.....	1, 328 86
Leather	9, 605 24	.....	.....	.....	9, 605 24
Liquors	1, 193 59	.....	1, 075 50	.....	2, 269 09
Mineral water	6, 368 10	.....	.....	3, 604 29	9, 972 39
Miscellaneous	203 58	153 13	.....	263 75	620 46
Musical instruments	15, 094 14	3, 654 36	5, 301 35	8, 765 86	32, 815 71
Paints	5, 942 63	5, 083 08	14, 352 99	10, 495 06	35, 873 76
Papier maché and fancy goods	9, 283 92	5, 968 59	13, 633 91	21, 279 11	50, 165 53
Raw barytes	.....	.....	.....	6, 176 12	6, 176 12
Seeds, plants, &c	39, 469 73	15, 876 51	3, 432 87	3, 970 96	62, 750 07
Slate pencils	8, 315 70	3, 554 85	8, 828 90	6, 997 53	27, 696 98
Smokers' articles	7, 738 70	3, 681 29	7, 860 34	8, 568 92	27, 849 25
Tulle	.....	1, 014 45	.....	.....	1, 014 45
Wafers	271 25	.....	.....	.....	271 25
Total	391, 328 52	315, 262 59	605, 104 45	765, 994 27	2, 077, 689 83
Previous year	334, 174 70	263, 763 20	520, 004 83	692, 214 19	1, 810, 156 92
Increase	57, 153 82	51, 499 39	85. 099 62	73, 780 08	267, 532 91

RAILWAYS, MINES, AND TRADE IN SONORA.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILLARD, OF GUAYMAS.

The Sonora Railway being now nearly completed, the company will soon let loose a large body of laborers heretofore employed by them, and of which the farmers have stood much in need.

The foreign employés of the railway company will most likely be transferred to the other roads in course of construction.

A great benefit is expected to accrue to this State by the completion of the road, as all kinds of merchandise of American manufacture can be landed at the various points along the route at much less cost than formerly, and other mercantile houses will be established, and thus there will be more competition and naturally a reduction in prices.

There is also a probability of a traffic being established from China and Australia to the United States by way of this port.

The imports of general merchandise at this port during the past nine

months by American vessels have been $400,000, and the tonnage 15,873. The imports for the railway by American vessels have been $350,000. The exports of hides and treasure during the same period amounted to $565,869.50.

A considerable quantity of mining machinery and supplies is constantly arriving, and during the coming months several mills now contracted for in San Francisco will arrive here. The largest mill (60 stamps) that has ever come to this State is now on the way to the mines of the Santa Marcia Mining Company of New York. It will probably be in running order in about 6 months.

Another American company contemplate the erection of a 40-stamp mill. There is every probability that the Mulatos gold mine will be sold to an American company, who will in all probability erect a 150-stamp mill. Other mining properties owned by Americans will require a great deal of American machinery during this fall and the coming year, and all indications point to a time of great prosperity in mining.

Iron for a street railway in this city is now on the way from Europe. Immediately upon its arrival work will be commenced.

The arrival of a hydraulic engineer is expected shortly to make estimates respecting the water supply of this city.

At the beginning of the rainy season everything looked favorable for an average crop throughout the State, but the scarcity of rain in the month of September has changed the aspect of things, and a partial failure of the corn crop is anticipated.

The staple articles of food, such as beans, flour, and corn, have advanced to such prices as to be felt by the laboring classes, and the prospects are for a further advance.

Flour (Mexican) has now reached $16 per carga of 300 pounds (an indifferent article at that) and is sure to advance in price, as it is an article controlled by very few people. It could easily and cheaply be supplied from California, were it not for the excessive import duty, which is in effect prohibitory, and is entirely for the benefit of the few, at the expense of the many.

The import duty on flour is nearly $14 per carga, and the higest price it reaches during the course of a year is about $24 per carga; that being the price at which flour can be imported. These monopolists take good care, at all times, to keep a fraction under that, and thus prevent importation.

For various reasons the political of affairs in this State are far from being in a satisfactory condition. A decided feeling of antagonism exists between the Federal and State authorities. At the present about 1,200 men are under arms, partly to resist an expected rising of the Taqui and Mayo Indians, and for fighting the Apaches. It is hoped this bad feeling will be amicably arranged without any bloodshed, as the people of the State are very much opposed to any more revolutions.

There is but little demand for real estate in and around Guaymas as yet, although it can be purchased at fair rates. Farming lands are offered for sale; there are but few inquiries for them, up to the present time.

A. WILLARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guaymas, Mexico, October 14, 1882.

THE SHEFFIELD CUTLERY INDUSTRY.

REPORT BY CONSUL WEBSTER.

I have the honor to submit herewith some observations upon the cutlery trade, one of the principal Sheffield industries; also, upon the business of scale-cutting, which is closely allied to cutlery; and upon ivory, which is the material of largest value used for the handles of knives. As the manufacture of cutlery has gained foothold in our country, any facts relating to it and to allied industries may, perhaps, be of interest.

In order not to make this dispatch too long, I will reserve my notes upon pearl and tortoise-shell, horn, bone, and other materials for a future communication.

Sheffield, as is well known, is the home of the cutlery trade in England, and by far the most important center of that industry in the world. It was born here. Three hundred years ago Sheffield had gained a reputation for the making of good knives. The poet Chaucer speaks commendably of the "Shefeld thwytel," and a writing-master in 1590 giving directions about quills, penknives &c., says: "First, therefore, be ths choice of your penknife—a right Shefeld knife is best." This reputation embraces also razors, and continues until the present day.

If we inquire as to the secret of the excellence of Sheffield cutlery, the steel-maker will tell us that the superiority of his steel is at the bottom of it; the forger at his anvil will say that the fine grain necessary to produce the best cutting edge is given to the steel by the blows of his hammer, and that no machine-made blade can equal his; the temperer will claim to possess some secret of especial efficacy; and others will confidently affirm that there is some peculiar virtue in Sheffield water that is imparted to the steel in the process of hardening. In proof that this latter belief exists is the fact that a few years since, when a company of Sheffield cutlers went to the United States to make razors, they took with them a cask of Sheffield water, they having no faith in the "Yankee" article.

The Sheffield cutler believes he can hold his own against the world, and the world's demand for his justly celebrated wares will go far to confirm his belief. During the ten years ending with 1881, Sheffield has sent cutlery to the United States alone to the value of $10,755,892, or more than $1,000,000 annually.

The amount required to supply the home market is about the same as that taken by the United States, or $1,000,000 annually.

There is no method of ascertaining with complete accuracy the quantities exported to all other countries. The government returns unite hardware and cutlery under the same head, and there is no means of separating them. From extensive inquiries and comparing estimates obtained from those best acquainted with the trade, and themselves largely engaged in it, it seems quite safe to place the amount at $2,000,000 annually. Taking these figures to be near the truth, we find that this one town supplies the world with $4,000,000 worth of cutlery every year, viz: home consumption, 1,000,000; exported to the United States, $1,000,000; exported to all other countries, $2,000,000.

For the protection of this ancient and important industry, and for the promotion of its interests, a cutler's company was formed and incor-

porated as early as the year 1624. The act of incorporation originally included makers of cutlery only, but it has in later years been made to embrace, also, makers of steel saws and edge tools.

The company owns a fine building in the center of the town, in which is the Cutlers' Hall. It is an elegant room, one hundred feet long by fifty wide, by fifty high, in which an annual banquet is given by the master cutler to the Cutler's Company and to distinguished invited guests, including often members of the government, members of Parliament, and foreigners of note. This is called the Cutlers' Feast, "The Great Northern Banquet." It is second in importance only to the Lord Mayor's banquet in London. It is esteemed a high honor to be elected master cutler, to preside at the feast, and to be entitled on occasions to wear the massive gold chain and badge of office and to be recorded in the long line of worthies who have been at the head of this ancient and honorable company. The privilege of the company is the granting and protection of trade-marks.

First in importance for the making of good cutlery is, of course, the steel for the blade. Next comes the material that forms the handle, which it is the principal purpose of this dispatch to consider. The substances thus used are various, and the whole world is laid under contribution to supply them. They consist of ivory, pearl, and tortoise-shell, stag, buck, buffalo, and all other kinds of horn, bone, foreign woods, and various patent substances known by the names xylonite, parksite, ebonite, &c.

The cutting of these various materials into sizes and shapes suitable for use by the cutler is a very large business by itself and with the purchase of the material, requires a large outlay of capital. For instance, one dealer in Sheffield tells me that his firm had on their premises at one time ivory to the value of $400,000. No such stocks are kept at the present time. The business of furnishing the material for handles is known by the general term of scale-cutting, the word scales being used to denote the pieces, of whatever material, that go to form the handle in all kinds of pocket-knives and in the cheaper grades of table cutlery.

The business embraces also the cutting of solid handles from ivory, pearl, shell, and other material for the best kinds of table cutlery. Some cutlers purchase the material and cut their own scales, but it is usual to purchase of those who make this a separate business.

Of all materials ivory holds the first rank. The sources of supply of this increasingly valuable material are Egypt, the East, West, and South coasts of Africa, and the British East Indies.

The following table will show the quantities imported into Great Britain during the year 1880, and from what countries:

	Cwts.
Holland	431
France	612
Egypt	2,003
Portuguese possessions, West Africa	361
West coast of Africa, not designated	2,310
East coast of Africa, native states	1,099
British possessions, West Africa	162
British possessions, South Africa	1,114
British East Indies	2,972
Malta	411
Aden	693
Other countries	1,267
	13,435

Malta is the port of shipment to England of ivory that finds its way to Tripoli and other points on the north coast of Africa. To Holland ivory is brought from her possessions on the coast of Africa. France receives but little, except what has been purchased in England, portions of which are sometimes returned. The Bombay, Siam, and Zanzibar ivory is bought for the making of piano keys, carvings, and other expensive articles of luxury.

All ivory from the east coast of Africa, except the cape, comes through Zanzibar, and pays a royalty to the Sultan. It is known to the trade by a mark, a rude figure of an elephant, that is put upon it after the payment of the royalty. It is said that this mark is sometimes erased from tusks that are to be sent to the United States from the sales in England. Is it to prevent identification when this ivory arrives in our country, and thus to evade the duty chargeable upon "goods the produce of countries of the Cape of Good Hope, when imported from places west of the Cape of Good Hope"?

Mammoth tusks from Siberia occasionally come to this market, but as they have been lying exposed for centuries, probably for many thousands of years, often buried in ice, the "nature" has gone out of them, and they are not suitable for the cutler's use.

The teeth of the walrus and hippopotamus are used in considerable quantity. Being of suitable size, they are used whole for making expensive carved handles.

Ivory of the best quality comes from the west coast of Africa, under the names Cameroon, Angola, and Gaboon. This is brought down from the interior. It retains a larger proportion of the "fat" or gelatine, from the fact, probably, that it is more recently from the animal. In this state it is called "green" ivory. It is more translucent, and not as white as the Egyptian and other kinds, called "white" ivory, that have been lying a longer time and in a more sandy region, exposed to the heat of the sun, until the animal matter has disappeared. The excellence of the "green" ivory consists in its greater toughness, and in its growing whiter by age, instead of yellow, as is the case with the whiter varieties. Yet buyers of cutlery, through ignorance of these qualities, usually prefer the whiter kinds, which, on that account, are more in demand for the Sheffield trade, and are said to have nearly doubled in price since 1879.

The sales of ivory occur every three months at London and Liverpool. Sales are also held, to a limited extent and at irregular intervals, at Rotterdam. At Liverpool only ivory of the best quality, that from the west coast of Africa, is offered. Buyers from Germany and France, and agents of American consumers, attend these sales. It is estimated that about one-quarter of the whole amount sold is taken by Sheffield buyers; another quarter goes to London; the remaining one-half goes to Germany, France, and the United States.

The experienced eye is quick to discern the value of a lot of ivory, assisted by a knowledge of the country from which it comes, which is essential. It is said that the electric light is beginning to be used to test the soundness of the tusks. The stocks of ivory in public warehouses, in this country, are smaller at the present time than for many years, and the rapid advance in prices is a cause of considerable anxiety to manufacturers. The highest price paid at a recent sale in Liverpool, for the best African ivory, was at the rate of $6,740 per ton, or more than $3 per pound. The cost of this material explains the fact that the principal factor in the value of the best table cutlery is the handle.

When the ivory comes into the hands of the cutler, much skill is required to make the most of the precious material. Every scrap is turned to account. After cutting out the scales of all sizes for pocket-knives, and the solid handles for table cutlery, the small pieces may be sold to the button-makers, or are made into "pearls." Pearls are small pieces of ivory, pearl, or horn inserted into the handles of tea and coffee pots as non-conductors of heat, so called because originally made of pearl.

The fine saw dust is sold for fertilizing purposes, for the making of gelatine, and a fine white sizing for the manufacturers of lace curtains and other fabrics. The refuse still remaining goes to the makers of ivory-black. The proportion of this residuum, dust, and refuse, is about ten to fifteen pounds to the hundred-weight, and it sells for eighty to one hundred dollars per ton.

Efforts have been made to devise some method of solidifying ivory dust, but as yet without success.

Skill is required in the cutting of ivory, as of wood, to bring out the beauty of the grain. The saw of the cutter occasionally reveals a rifle-ball that has been lodged in the tusk and has been completely covered by subsequent growth. About one-third of the length of the tusk, where it enters the head of the elephant, is hollow. This hollow, when the tusk is in place upon the live animal, is filled with a soft pulp or core, which supplies the growth of the tusk. A ball lodged in this core will in time become imbedded in solid ivory. This hollow portion is cut off and sold separately, except the thinnest portion, as bangle ivory, and is in great demand for bangles or ornamental rings for the ankles and arms of Indian and African women.

That portion of the tusk towards the point is usually more solid and of finer grain. This is cut off and sold by itself at high prices under the name of billiard-ball points.

Small teeth of from 10 to 15 pounds' weight are called in the trade scrivelloes. The points of these small tusks are used in their natural state for making handles to expensive carving sets, and other articles of luxury.

The total amount of ivory imported into Great Britain during the nine years from 1873 to 1881, inclusive, was 5,286 tons. The whole number of tusks being known, the average weight per pair can be easily ascertained. This average is put at 40 pounds, which is above rather than below the true weight. Assuming this to be correct, the 5,286 tons of ivory represent 296,016 pairs of tusks, and, consequently, the same number of elephants that have died long ago or have been slaughtered in later times, to supply the demands of luxury for the past nine years. At this rate of destruction it will be seen how rapidly this noble animal must disappear, and how surely ivory will become a thing of the past.

There are, doubtless, large quantities of ivory still remaining in the interior of the African continent, but with the rapid advance of civilized man, and the temptation of increasingly high prices, these will be soon discovered and exhausted.

The large proportion of very small tusks brought to market indicates how many elephants die in early youth. To show to what size many of these might have attained, the well known-cutlers, Joseph Rogers & Son, of Sheffield, exhibit at their show-rooms an African elephant's tusk 9 feet long, 21 inches in girth, weighing 160 pounds. This is among the largest tusks on record. Its present value is $650. An animal large and strong enough to carry such a pair of incisors would attract more attention than Jumbo.

I hope to take up in a future communication pearl and tortoise shell the various kinds of horn and bone, and other materials used in the cutlery and scale-cutting industries of Sheffield.

C. B. WEBSTER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sheffield, September 26, 1882.

CALIFORNIA WINES FOR GERMANY.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT WAMER, OF DUSSELDORF.

As efforts are being made to encourage the sale of California wines in this part of Germany, I undertook, in conjunction with my friend Professor Stutzer, director of the German Agricultural Experimental Station for the Rhenish Provinces, to chemically investigate the two qualities which I purchased from a wine house in Cologne, namely, the Riesling (white) and the Zinfandill* (red). The following are the results obtained by very careful analyses, which I hope will be of some value to our American wine producers and others:

Analyses.	California Riesling.	California Zinfandill.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*
Alcohol	11.60	9.45
Sugar	.10	.10
Glycerine	.353	.376
Extracts	1.667	2.426
Mineral matter	.192	.391
Acid (calculated from tartaric acid)	.536	.750
Phosphoric acid	.016	.035
Potash	.064	.147
Sulphuric acid	.058	.141
Lime	.006	.014
Magnesia	.012	.015

Specific gravity (at 15° C.) of the Riesling, 0.9902; of the Zinfandill, 0.9830.

According to Professor Stutzer's opinion, the California Riesling is a good wine, having a superior taste, and well fitted for import into Germany. It contains a high percentage of alcohol, and it could be used by wine dealers for mixing with the German lighter wines, or drunk alone as a good and strong wine.

There is not the least doubt in my mind but that this wine could be brought into very great demand in this country, as the Germans like its taste, and the only objection that they could find against it would be in the price.

The red Zinfandill cannot be so well recommended for import, on account of there being too large an amount of sulphate of lime used in the preparation of it, which addition is very much disliked in Germany. The bitartrate of potash contained in this wine forms with the sulphate of lime tartrate of lime and a mixture of sulphate and bisulphate of potash. Where the sulphates exist largely in wine they exert injurious physiological influence on the human organism, and therefore it is not advisable to mix sulphate of lime with the red wine that is intended to be sold in Germany.

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*I am informed that these wines come from Saint Helena, Cal.

The importation of French red wines into Germany is very large, and if proper attention is given in the preparation of the California Zinfandill I can see no reasons why America could not gain a good portion of this trade.

The red French wines contain from 9 to 14 per cent. of alchohol; Burgundy, 9, 10, and 11 per cent.; Bordeaux, 10, 11, and 12 per cent. The California Zinfandill, as will be seen by the above analysis, contains 9.45 per cent. of alchohol.

The amount of *extract* varies greatly, and according to the kind of wine and the grade of fermentation of the sugar. For example, Professor Fresenius found in Rhine wine as maximum 10.6 and as minimum 4.2 per cent. extracts. F. Schubert, in the wine from the neighborhood of Hurzburg, 7.2 to 1.1 per cent.

The mineral matter is found only in small quantities in wine. From four analyses of Maderia wine the average was .25 per cent.; four of Rhine wine, .12 per cent.; four of Port wine, .235 per cent., and the California Riesling and Zinfandill contain, according to the above analyses, respectively, .192 to .391 per cent. of mineral matter.

WM. D. WAMER,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Dusseldorf, June 21, 1882.

FALSIFICATION OF FRENCH BRANDY.

REPORT BY CONSUL GIFFORD, OF LA ROCHELLE.

I have the honor to inclose a copy of a letter addressed to me by Mr. Martell, president of the Chamber of Commerce of Cognac, in regard to the falsification of brandy exported from that town to the United States. This letter, which was received too late to accompany my report on the same subject (transmitted in dispatch No. 11, June 5, 1882), admits that falsification is practiced, and that the reputation of Cognac brandy is likely to suffer in consequence. The Chamber of Commerce is doubtful, however, if the low quality of brandy is injurious to the health of consumers, but expresses the opinion that medical men would be more competent to decide the question. I beg leave to add that medical men *have* decided that the alchohol derived from grain or potatoes, which is used as the basis of all Cognac made since 1878, is an extremely dangerous beverage.

GEORGE GIFFORD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
La Rochelle, September 9, 1882.

Mr. Martell, president of the Chamber of Commerce of Cognac, to Consul Gifford.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF COGNAC,
Cognac, July 20, 1882.

SIR: I am requested by my colleagues of the Chamber of Commerce of Cognac to inform you that it is rather difficult for them to answer the questions contained in your note of the 29th of May last.

We are led to believe that a certain quantity of brandy mixed with German spirit,

and shipped under the denomination of Cognac brandy, is exported to the United States of America by houses who are shipping nothing but a low quality.

We feel convinced, on the other hand, that there are many shippers who continue to forward a genuine article, and they rightly protest against such a practice, which might be very prejudical in the long run to the reputation of the Cognac brandy. However, the documents are missing to trace out the quantity which is really falsified in our district, or to name the houses that are making that illegitimate trade.

We do not consider brandy manufactured from German and other alcohols constitutes a danger for the public health, as no other spirit has been consumed in France for many years by the lower class; allow us at the same time to say medical men will be able to answer the question much better than ourselves.

I remain, sir, very respectfully, yours,

E. MARTELL.

GEORGE GIFFORD, Esq.,
United States Consul, La Rochelle.

ADULTERATION OF BORDEAUX WINES.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROOSEVELT.

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of instructions concerning the present condition of the wine and brandy products in France.

After careful inquiry and investigation, I am enabled to report what I believe to be the facts in the matter in question.

As the custom-house here has no statistics which attest the quantity of adulterated wines and brandies exported, I fear I shall not be able to give a very satisfactory answer to the first question, regarding the percentum of falsified wines and brandies exported from this consular district to the United States.

I may say, however, without exaggeration, that more than half of the cheaper wines now exported from here are what may be called falsified, as they are made up by what is known as "blending," which is a process of mixing two or more varieties and reducing the alcoholic strength to a given standard, which corresponds in that particular with an average claret of French vintage.

I am informed on good authority that the "wetting" of wines is very extensively carried on; that is, that the heavier bodied wines of Spain, Portugal, Greece, Italy, Hungary, and other countries are brought here and made over with water or common white wines of the Pyrenees, and are then shipped to foreign countries, or even sold in France, for Bordeaux clarets.

This kind of falsification is winked at by the customs, and by the Chamber of Commerce, but it is claimed that a strict watch is kept by the bureau of analysis attached to the customs, to prevent the importation into France of wines which contain noxious substances, while no attention is paid by the state to the condition or composition of the wines when they are exported from France to foreign countries.

All goods discovered to contain fuchsine, a coloring substance which was for a long time employed, but is now forbidden by the government, are confiscated and destroyed.

A substance called salycynate of soda was employed for a considerable period to prevent low-grades of wines from souring, but was also forbidden by authority, and has not been used *openly* for some time past. A delegation of merchants recently presented a petition to the Chamber of Commerce here asking the members to sign, praying the minister of finance to reverse the decree against salycynate of soda, and more than a majority of the chamber signed the petition.

These facts indicate plainly enough that falsified wines have a leading or, at least, an important place in the trade here, and it is admitted by some of my informants that the laws are evaded by unscrupulous persons whenever it is possible, and that quantities of wines which are literally artificial are sold under labels bearing well known brands.

While the "blended" and the "wetted" wines may possibly be entirely free from substances which are injurious to health, such can scarcely be the case with liquids which are wholly artificially made, that is, made from water and dried grapes, an ordinary kind of raisins, and colored, perfumed, given a flavor of age, and the other common properties of an ordinary wine, by the introduction of a series of chemicals made and sold publicly for this purpose.

I consulted a druggist who makes a speciality of a line of these articles, and obtained from him the following information:

The *purprit-win* is a coloring matter that has been patented, and which is certified to be perfectly neutral and to contain no noxious ingredients.

The *bouquet Médocain*, also pronounced innocuous, is a liquid used to impart to the artificial wine the taste of age, and the aroma of good claret. It is frequently employed with another substance called *séve de Médoc*, to improve the "bouquet" of real wines.

La poudre Anglaise is another article employed for ripening the fabricated wines.

A regenerator and a clarifier also do their part in the distillation, but the most expensive of these drugs is the *purprit-win*, which costs about $12 for 1,000 grams, a little more than 2 pounds; 50 grams are required to give a claret color to a hogshead of 60 gallons. The other substances named are much cheaper and are used in small quantities.

The amount of dried grapes necessary to produce a barrel of sixty gallons is from 30 to 40 pounds, which are crushed and allowed to ferment in water, after which the refuse is removed, and the chemicals above named or their equivalents are mixed with the water.

It is claimed that the use of these liquids is not attended with any injury to the consumer, but I am led to disagree with this theory on account of reports made by the Octroi officials, to which my attention has been called.

These reports show a cetain per cent. of the wine examined for consumption in Paris, for instance, to be good; a certain per cent. to be fair; a certain per cent. to be bad but not injurious, and a certain per cent. to be injurious.

I have not been able to procure a table showing the result of one of these reports.

The percentage denounced as injurious is mostly found in cheap restaurants and drinking shops, and it is claimed that the noxious substances are added by the keepers of these places, who resort to adulteration to increase their profits.

I have been informed that owners of respectable establishments have been offered a franc a barrel for the simple privilege of passing a certain lot of wine through their cellars, in the back door and out the front door, without permitting the barrels to remain a moment in the cellars. These points are mentioned as indicative of chicanery in the trade, and because in the nature of the case it is next to impossible to obtain information which I could indorse as certain and incontrovertible. These two varieties and methods of fasification are largely carried on; the wines so produced are exported to foreign countries, and also consumed in France; *ergo*, as so much wine of all grades and prices is shipped from

here to the United States, these two qualities, and others perhaps more deleterious, must inevitably be introduced in larger or smaller quantities so long as there is no test applied at the port of entry.

To fix, even approximately, the per centum of falsified wines and brandies sent into the United States from this district, I feel it to be entirely impossible at present. From the scarcity of native real wines, and the vast increase of the trade in falsified articles, I should judge the per centum of the latter to be at least 50 per cent., but a more accurate estimate might be obtained by carefully noting the shipments for a given period, say for six months, and by subjecting any goods which awakened suspicion to examination, or, if necessary, to analysis. A better and easier plan, however, might be to organize a bureau of analysis at ports of entry, similar to those attached to the French service.

In reply to the second question I would say that drinks produced from a great variety of chemicals have been proven to be very injurious to the health of the consumers, and in case quantities of these falsified goods are sent to the United States, there can be no doubt that the same injuries which are noticed here will be effected upon consumers there. The immediate characteristic effect of the lowest grades of these falsified drinks are to render the consumer languid and sleepy, and to make him weak and nervous while its influence lasts, and desperate or despondent as the effect wears off.

I have not heard of any test having been made which showed the ultimate influence upon the health of a person habitually given to the use of these liquids; but a chemist who has studied the question informs me that the use of drinks which contain a certain proportion of the salycynate of soda, or *acid salycytique*, temporarily affects the hearing, the vision, and produces giddiness, stupor, and headache.

An overdose of *fuchsine* in the wine causes vomiting and other symptoms of poisoning, and attacks and disorders the organs of the consumer.

As regards the injury effected by the use of these liquids being a sufficient cause to justify their prohibition as a sanitary measure, *I am of opinion that if, by a given test, a noxious element was found in goods actually arrived from France for consumption in the United States, there would be better grounds for prohibiting the entry of French wines and brandies into the United States than there were for putting an embargo on American pork coming into France.*

In my opinion the effect of this investigation, especially if it should lead the Government of the United States to establish bureaus of analysis at New York, New Orleans, and San Francisco, for the purpose of testing French wines before allowing their sale, would be to do away with impediments against the entrance of American pork into France.

I have the honor to add the following supplementary considerations, as bearing upon the matter in question:

From a series of causes, partly natural and partly artificial, the French vintage has declined to a mere shadow of its former self; but, in spite of this fact, the wine speculators are determined to maintain their trade at a maximum, by methods which are invented rather than natural, and decidedly queer if not altogether illegitimate. A leading vineyard, which used to produce an average crop of 1,000 hogsheads per annum, will now scarcely produce 40 hogsheads, or 4 per cent. of its former yield. Supposing this to represent the maximum of the present native crop, and that the dealers are determined not only to maintain the usual trade but to increase it, they must supply at least 96 per cent. by importation, or by artificial fabrication.

But the example given above shows perhaps the minimum of the de-

cline. The result is that a pure Bordeaux claret cannot be bought here, now, for less than 250 francs ($50) per hogshead. Unscrupulous dealers will sell mixed and falsified articles from 100 to 200 francs per hogshead, and represent them as Bordeaux table clarets.

What, then, is to prevent them from putting respectable labels on spurious articles for the United States, as they do for the South American republics, to which are sent both "wetted" and "blended" wines bearing labels as "Chateau Lafitte," "Chateau Margaux," &c., *ad lib.*

These falsifications and mixtures may be had here for 8 francs the case of twelve bottles, and they are sometimes invoiced for the United States as "table clarets" at 10 and 12 francs the case, as I am forced to believe, from the fact that pure Bordeaux clarets can scarcely be had at double these prices per case. The bottling and packing cost at least 5 francs per case, which leaves the actual cost of the wine at about 8 and 12 sous per bottle, and that in a time of a disastrous wine famine.

It is stoutly maintained that no harmful materials enter into the composition of these cheap wines; but, nevertheless, a government inspector upon examining some wine he had purchased for table use found it to contain very substantial traces of salycynate of soda, and acide salycytique which had been introduced to preserve the wine.

The "mixed" and "blended" articles do not improve but rather degenerate with age, while a true claret improves, as is well known, with each year it is kept in bottles.

The mixing was no doubt suggested by the superior alcoholic strength of the southern wines, which contain an average of 15 per cent. of spirits, while the common white wines of the French Pyrenees contain but 6 per cent.

If the "blending" is done without fraud or adulteration, the result should be a very palatable wine of 10 per cent. or 11 per cent. alcoholic strength, but by no means a Bordeaux claret.

Dealers who supply their customers in foreign countries with these articles under false labels undoubtedly commit a palpable fraud on the government and on the consumer, though perhaps the seller here is hardly so much to blame as the dealer in the receiving country, supposing the latter to be informed of the deception.

The above observations will also apply to the adulteration of brandy, which, I am informed, is extensively carried on in France, but not to a great extent in this district, as very little brandy is made here. The dealers in crude tartar, who supply the American and English cream tartar works, now have a lively competitor for the purchase of the wine drugs, in the person of the fabricator of cheap falsified brandies.

The fabricators of these adulterated wines are constantly introducing new substances for coloring and for giving other wine properties to their products, so that it is difficult to give a complete list of the articles employed. Besides those already named in this report, the following have a leading place in the trade: *Althora rosæ*, the bilberry, elder berries, cochineal, indigo, Bordelais red, vegetable red, berries of dwarf elder, berries of phytolacca, and the berries of a plant or shrub called the *Makonia*, for which I cannot find the English equivalent.

Indigo is used to modify reds which are too carmine.

The fuchsine is sometimes made with arsenic, in which case it is, of course, much more dangerous than when made of less poisonous ingredients.

GEO. W. ROOSEVELT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, April 17, 1882.

THE WINE TRADE OF MADEIRA.

REPORT BY CONSUL DU PONT-SYLE, OF FUNCHAL.

The vine was introduced into Madeira from Candia about the middle of the fifteenth century. It reached its greatest vigor in 1813, when 22,000 pipes (92 gallons to the pipe) were exported.

	Pipes.
In 1814 the exports were	14,000
In 1815 the exports were	15 000
In 1816 the exports were	12,000
In 1818 the exports were	18,000
In 1825 the exports were	14,000

From 1826 to 1852 the exports decreased to an average of 7,000 pipes annually. In this last year the Oidium Tuckeri (a kind of fungus growth) appeared, and nearly destroyed the vines. By the year 1860 this scourge had nearly been conquered through the careful use of sulphur, and for some years the vineyards were again in a flourishing condition. In 1873 the phylloxera appeared, and committed great ravages. But one grower, Mr. Leacock, has had much success in fighting this enemy. His method is to uncover the vine-roots once in three years and paint them with a preparation of rosin and turpentine.

The vine found best suited to resist the ravages of the phylloxera is the American *Isabella*, which has been extensively planted. The method of training the vine in Madeira is to support it on trellis-work raised a few feet from the ground. Pruning is little in vogue. Harvest comes in August, September, and the early part of October. The grapes, when plucked, are put into a large trough or box and trodden out by the feet of men. The first juice extracted is allowed to stand until the sulphur which was on the grape skins settles at the bottom. After treading, the grapes are piled up in a solid mass, tightly packed with cord, and pressed under a huge screw-beam. Finally, the now-compressed mass is broken up, water is poured over it, and once more it is trodden. The liquid produced by this last process is called *Agua-pé*, or "Foot-water," and is given to the peasants to drink.

The price of *mosto*, or pure grape juice as pressed, runs from $2.50 to $4 a barrel, or, say, $30 to $50 a pipe. The cost of racking, sorting, fining, &c., may be put at $50 to $70 more. It is safe to say that, including cooperage, freight, charges, and commissions, it is impossible to produce a pipe of unadulterated Madeira wine, of the cheapest quality, at less than $130. Apple juice is cheap and abundant in Madeira, and must be considered an important ingredient in any wine which is advertised at less than the above-mentioned figure.

Madeira wine in 1882.—The weather throughout this summer has been very favorable to the vine, and the vintage now approaching completion will be above the average in quality, the grapes being well matured and the *mosto* showing much saccharine.

The total produce is expected to exceed that of 1881, but the increase is chiefly on the north side of the island, where inferior wine is made. On the south side, although many vineyards have produced more than

last year, the ravages made in others by the phylloxera have kept down the total yield to about the same as last year.

Year.	Production.	Exports.	Consumed in the Island.
	Pipes.	*Pipes.*	
1879	5,000	2,100	About 1,000 pipes annually.
1880	3,000	2,900	
1881	2,500	4,000	

The stock held in the island to-day is estimated at 30,000 pipes. Nearly all the wine exported goes to England; about a half of this finds its way to the continent. The custom-house keeps no statistics of the ultimate destination of wine, so it is impossible to furnish them. Export duty is $5 per pipe.

Value of wine exported to the United States in 1881, $21,576.95.

L. DU PONT SYLE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Funchal, September 30, 1882.

SUCCESSFUL TREATMENT FOR THE PHYLLOXERA IN MADEIRA.

[From the London Standard September 20, 1879.]

Mr. Leacock, after trying in vain some insecticides and so-called cures, devised a treatment of his own, which he has now pursued for the last four years with success. The vines so treated look remarkably well, and their owner has just had the satisfaction of gathering a very fine crop. It is not claimed for this treatment that the vines are thereby permanently cured, but that it is simple and not expensive, and that the good results last for at least four years. The treatment in this case consists in removing, after the first autumn rains, the earth from round the vine to the depth of some twenty inches or so. The vines being planted in rows, a trench is thus formed, the vines standing in the middle with their upper roots exposed. The loose bark is now removed and with it many insects and eggs, and the lower part of the stem and roots, as far as laid bare, painted with a preparation of turpentine, in which sufficient powdered rosin has been dissolved to bring it to the proper consistency. The vines are then manured, a necessary accompaniment to any mode of treatment, for without it the plants cannot possibly recover their strength. The earth is then filled in, and another trench proceeded with in the same manner. At first sight this will appear too laborious a process to pay, but it is claimed for it that it is good for some three years at least, and that any mode of treatment that does not include manuring is incomplete. By this method the two operations are performed simultaneously, and the manure is buried deep—an important consideration—for the roots should not be encouraged to come too near to the surface, where they fall so much more easily a prey to the phylloxera. The lighter parts of the work can be well performed by women and boys, or by the peasant's family.

SWISS WINES.

REPORT BY CONSUL ADAMS, OF GENEVA.

The decrease in the yield of the French vineyards since the invasion of the phylloxera has affected the wine trade of all Europe. The deficiency has been met partly by the importation into France of Spanish and Italian grapes; partly by the manufacture of artificial wines from

dried grapes, which is now a recognized and considerable industry in the south of France, and at Geneva; and partly by the introduction into the markets of the wines of Spain, Italy, Hungary, and Greece. In these circumstances it may interest American importers to know that certain of the Swiss wines deserve attention as a substitute for the Rhine wines and the white wines of France.

I add herewith an estimate prepared for me by Mr. Francis Demole, of Geneva, one of the first authorities on all questions of agriculture in Switzerland, giving the acreage of vineyards in each of the cantons of the confederation, showing a total of 85,929 acres. The whole area may be divided into four districts: the valley of the Upper Rhine; the basin of Lake Neuchatel; the basin of Lake Geneva and the Upper Rhone emptying into it; and the Italian slopes of the Alps. Of the first and last I have little information. The Upper Rhine produces a white wine which I think is not exported; the Italian cantons, a variety of red wines, some of great excellence, but which, like many other Italian wines, suffer in transportation.

The average yield is estimated by Mr. Demole at 1,600 liters per acre, at 30 centimes per liter, giving a total for all Switzerland of about 137,486,400 liters, valued at 41,245,920 francs; say 36,296,500 gallons, valued at $7,959,462. To this sum may be added for the exportation of grapes, largely used in neighboring countries for the grape-cure and for the product of artificial wines, say $300,000, giving a total of $8,259,462. According to a careful estimate, based upon the harvest of 1877, the annual consumption was 150,510,000 liters of native wine, and 107,334,000 liters of foreign wine, in all 257,844,000 liters, or 96 liters per inhabitant. As the consumption has certainly not fallen off, this would indicate a decrease in the yield of the Swiss vineyards since that year, and that in any case with the home demand there is no need to seek a foreign market. This is true of the red wines produced in small quantities; but it often happens that the best native white wines are crowded out of the home market by importations from Germany and Hungary, and by the growing consumption of spirits and cider, when the foreign market becomes important.

Of the plants from which the Swiss white wines are produced, and in considerable variety, some indigenous, others imported, mostly from France. In the two districts of Lake Neuchatel and Lake Geneva, from which all the best export wines come, a single stock known as the Chasselas in three varieties (the *fondant roux*, or russet, the *fondant vert*, or green, and the *fondant gris*, or gray) has superseded the others. In France this vine is only grown for table use, the corresponding French wines (Montrachet, Meursault, Mesnil, and D'Avize of Champagne, the Chablis, &c.) being produced from a stock known as the Pineau. In the Neuchatel district the Chasselas produces a variety of wines, of which the better known are the Mauler and the sparkling Cortaillod, sold extensively as a substitute for champagne. The most extensive and productive vineyards are those of the canton of Vaud, on the north shore of Lake Geneva, which, according to the subjoined table, produces from a fourth to a half of the whole yield of Switzerland.

The table shows the extreme uncertainty both of the harvests and the markets, the prices of the choicer wines having varied during ten years from 20 to 50 centimes, and in some cases from 50 centimes to a franc the liter. Notwithstanding this the market value of many of the vineyards is very great. The entire district of the D'Esalay, comprising about 25 acres, was sold in 1878 for $8,000 an acre, a price never reached in the Bordelais or Burgundy.

The best Vaudois wines for export are the D'Esalay, the Yvornes (Clos du Rocher, Grosse Grille, &c.), the Villeneuve, and the wines of La Côte. To these should be added nearly all the wines of Valais produced in the upper Rhone Valley above the Yvorne district. Owing to the peculiar climate and soil most of them have a special character indicated by the names under which they are sold (Johannisberg, Malvoisie, amère and flétrie, Gros and Petit Rhin.

LYELL T. ADAMS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Geneva, August 1, 1882.

A.—*Area of vineyards for each of the Swiss cantons.*

	Acres.		Acres.
Appenzell	25	Schwyz	125
Argovie	5,871	Soleure	474
Basle	2,459	Tessin	12,108
Berne	2,026	Thurgovie	4,982
Fribourg	872	Unterwald	
Geneva	4,286	Uri	
Glaris		Valais	10,229
Grisons	810	Vaud	14,455
Lucerne	206	Zoug	71
Neuchatel	3,202	Zürich	13,343
Saint Gall	6,672		
Schaffhousen	3,113	Total	85,929

B.—*Quantities and values of wine produced in the canton of Vaud*, 1871–1880.

Years.	Quantities.	Values.
	Liters.	
1871	854,131,500	$4,192,221
1872	210,958,000	1,592,161
1873	139,008,500	1,816,535
1874	627,005,000	4,775,505
1875	530,276,500	4,786,825
1876	434,745,500	3,066,098
1877	408,088,000	3,413,516
1878	296,164,000	2,449,614
1879	122,316,000	1,262,497
1880	455,594,000	4,305,514
	4,087,286,500	31,660,486

BRITISH, FRENCH, AND AMERICAN SHIPPING.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES, OF NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE.

THE GROWTH OF BRITISH SHIPPING.

This paper is a commercial report rather than a historical record. Omitting the interesting chapters of earlier times, it will deal with British shipping from the period when iron steamers entered into the carrying trade of the world, and trace its growth and fortunes to the present position of unexampled prosperity.

OLD PREJUDICE AGAINST IRON SHIPS.

Prejudices die hard. The early advocates of iron ships and propellers were generally laughed at. They set forth in vain the advantages of iron vessels in durability, safety, and strength; increased stowage capacity, greater economy, comfort, and health. They were met by objections on the score of perturbation of the compasses; it was argued that the saline property in salt water would corrode the iron, and that the building material would soon be destroyed by oxidization. They were naively asked, "Who ever heard of iron floating?" and a chief architect of the navy replied to Mr. Scott Russell upon the subject of iron ships by saying, "Don't talk to me about iron ships—it's contrary to nature!"

The government of the time reflected the prejudices of the country. They would not adopt iron ships for the navy because iron sides were easier penetrated, and wooden walls were easier plugged. Moreover, the Admiralty set its face against rolled plates, and in favor of hammered plates. Experiments were made at the invitation of Charles Mark Palmer, esq., M. P., the founder of the ship-building works which bear his name; and to quote the honorable gentleman, "the firing showed that whilst the hammered plates split and cracked to pieces, the rolled plates were not broken, only indented, and were superior to the hammered plates in every respect." Meanwhile ships of iron in whole or in part were being built. In 1839 Captain Stockton, of the United States Navy, ordered a small iron screw steamer from Ericsson, then living in London, and sent her to ply upon American waters.

That magnificent iron propeller, the Great Britain, was launched in Bristol in 1843. She was 322 feet over all, 51 feet beam, 32 feet 6 inches depth of hold, 2,984 tons measurement, and possessing engines of 1,000 horse-power. But iron ships were still looked upon as innovations, suitable perhaps for carrying passengers and the mail, and for scientific explorations in the waters and rivers of the east and west; but not likely to hold their own as carriers against vessels built of the more buoyant material. But the idea of putting iron propellers into the general ocean carrying trade was in embryo, and a screw collier was a still less mature project.

A steamer carrying 650 tons of coal would cost £10,000. And the overcautious maintained that it was impossible for such a ship to compete successfully with a craft consuming no fuel, costing only one-tenth of the money, even though she carried only half the cargo. Mr. Palmer, however, had thought and worked the problem out. Let me again quote him. He says:

> About the year 1850, the carriage of coal by railway began seriously to affect the sale of north country coal in the London market, and it became essential, in the interest of the coal owners and others, to devise some means of conveying the staple produce of this district to London in an expeditious, regular, and at the same time economical manner. To accomplish this object, I caused an iron screw steamer to be designed in such a manner as to secure the greatest possible capacity, with engines only sufficiently powerful to insure her making her voyage with regularity. This vessel (the John Bowes) the first screw collier, was built to carry 650 tons, and to steam about nine miles an hour. To the success of this experiment is attributable, in a great measure, the present important development of iron-ship building in this district, and the fact that we continue to supply so largely the London market with coals. On her first voyage the John Bowes was laden with 650 tons of coals in 4 hours; in 48 hours she arrived in London; in 24 hours more she discharged her cargo; and in 48 hours more she was again in the Tyne; so that in five days she performed successfully an amount of work that would have taken two averaged-sized sailing colliers upwards of a month to accomplish.

Things have changed since the John Bowes was launched. Every improvement and invention intended to accelerate speed, insure economy, save life and labor, are at once adopted by the British shipbuilder and owner of to-day.

CARRYING-TRADE COMPETITION.

If prejudice is the stumbling block, competition is the spur of prosperity. Here in the United Kingdom the rivalry has been kept up between railways and floating tonnage in the mineral and goods carrying trade. The John Bowes, and the fleet of screw colliers which followed her, were brought into existence by the Northeastern Railway Company, and the competition between South Wales, the North of England, and the other coal-producing districts in supplying the metropolis with coals. The inventive faculty of shipbuilder and engineer is kept ever on the alert, while the cost of freight and the price of coal in London are maintained at a normal state through healthy competition.

Rivalry is keen between the various ports of the Kingdom, both in shipbuilding and ocean traffic. It is interesting to note the origin, establishment, and growth of shipbuilding in various districts. The Clyde, where Henry Bell built his little steamer, the Comet, and where the genius and enthusiasm of Watt, and Napier, and others were exercised as far back as 1812, still retains the premiership, especially in building passenger ships of the highest speed and the finest type. Liverpool received her first steamer from the Clyde in 1815. And, although the Mersey attained celebrity by building the Elburka in 1832, followed by the Garry Owen and others, from the yard of Messrs. Laird, of Birkenhead, the great Scottish river gradually drew to the front, and continues to do, in ever-increasing importance, a trade which was inaugurated nearly seventy years ago. It furnishes Liverpool with steam tonnage which embraces the "greyhounds of the Atlantic," the Alaska, Servia, Arizona, and other fast-floating palaces. Belfast, a modern shipbuilding port, is the Clyde's keenest competitor in fine passenger boats; those magnificent steamers, the Germanic and Britannic, were built in that thriving Irish town. While acknowledging the supremacy of the Clyde in the construction of mail and passenger steamers, the Tyne and northeastern district may be considered the cradle and stronghold of the large dead-weight carrying screw steamers, which constitute the bulk and indicate the supremacy of the British Mercantile Navy. Moreover, this district is making rapid progress in competition with the great Scottish River in building the swiftest and most highly finished steamers. Such ships are here built every year for commercial and warlike purposes, both for government and private firms at home and abroad. The extent and strength of home competition in shipbuilding may be ascertained from the following table, compiled from the board of trade returns for last year:

Number and net tonnage of sailing and steam vessels built in the United Kingdom, exclusive of ships for foreign account.

Where built.	Sailing.		Steam.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Aberdeen	2	2,458	6	3,291	8	5,749
Barrow	1	121	11	15,222	12	15,343
Bristol	1	84	3	349	4	433
Belfast	2	199	12	13,694	14	13,893
Campelltown			5	1,212	5	1,212
Dundee	1	851	11	11,710	12	12,561
Glasgow	28	10,927	80	77,901	108	88,828
Greenock	15	11,072	12	13,071	27	24,143
Hartlepool			10	9,949	10	9,949
Hartlepool, West			20	22,434	20	22,434
Hull	2	158	6	6,973	8	7,131
Leith	1	901	12	3,937	13	4,838
Liverpool	9	12,051	14	13,396	23	25,447
London	46	1,963	18	760	64	2,723
Middlesbrough			8	9,231	8	9,231
Sunderland	4	4,869	66	72,058	70	76,927
Southampton	11	9,824	3	2,975	14	11,299
Stockton	6	7,248	15	16,770	21	24,018
Port Glasgow	12	13,924	22	11,199	34	25,123
Whitby	1	42	6	6,586	7	6,628
Whitehaven	2	2,847	4	1,898	6	4,745
Tyne ports	3	275	103	91,640	106	91,915
Other ports	204	14,106	39	2,508	243	16,614
Totals, 1881	351	92,420	486	408,764	945	501,184
1880	348	57,480	474	346,361	822	403,841
1879	395	59,115	412	297,720	807	356,835
1878	585	141,165	499	287,080	1,084	428,245
1877	703	212,320	389	221,330	1,092	433,650

British shipping has doubled during the last thirty years. The gross tonnage amounted to 4,326,000 tons, valued at £25,600,000, in 1850. In 1881 it was stated at 10,196,000 tons, estimated at £101,800,000. No other country has made anything approaching the same ratio of progress in the same direction. Norway exhibits most enterprise—leastwise that country shows the next greatest comparative increase of tonnage—during the last three decades. In 1850 she owned 298,315 tons of shipping; by last year her mercantile navy had increased five-fold, to 1,510,669 tons. The land of the Viking shows life and vigor in shipping. Some of her sea-coast towns do a large trade in shipbuilding; and many of the steamers which navigate the great fjords of Norway, built at Christiania, are creditable vessels, in speed, strength, and architecture. But the bulk of the increase is composed of foreign-built tonnage; and a large proportion of that consists of British sailing-vessels bought from owners and not built to order. The transfer of sailing-tonnage from the British register amounted to over a thousand vessels, representing 281,897 tons during 1881, and Norway became possessed of a large share of the total by purchase. France, with abundance of wealth and ambition for maritime greatness, with cheaper labor than the United Kingdom, and under disadvantages arising only out of a slight difference in the price of coal, has signally failed to hold her own. Her tonnage in 1850 amounted to 688,153; by 1870 it had increased to 1,072,048 tons; but in the next decade it fell off to 919,298. Since 1880, however, the bounty system has been inaugurated.

FRENCH BOUNTY SYSTEM.

["Loi sur la Marine Marchande," 29th January, 1881.]

Such is the title and date of the law granting bounties to the French merchant navy.

Article 7 of that law suppresses the importations free of duty of all

materials destined for shipbuilding, which privilege had been instituted by the 1st article of the law of 19th May, 1866. Consequently, shipbuilders have now to pay full duties on all materials they import. But article 4 of the new law says: As a compensation for the tax that the customs tariff imposes on builders of ships, they will be allowed the following bounties:

On iron or steel ships, 60 francs per ton gross measurement.
On wooden ships of 200 tons or more, 10 francs per ton gross measurement.
On wooden ships of less than 200 tons, 10 francs per ton gross measurement.
On composite ships, 40 francs per ton gross measurement.
On the motoric engines and on the auxiliary apparatus, such as steam-pumps, servo moteurs, winches worked mechanically, as well as the boilers which feed them, with the piping or tubing, 12 francs per 100 kilog.
Are considered as composite ships those made of wood outside, but having beams or ribs of iron or steel.

Under Article 5 of the law any modification or alteration of a ship whereby its tonnage is increased gives a right to a bounty calculated as per above tariff on such increase of tonnage. The bounty is allowed on the propelling engines and auxiliary engines placed on board after the ship is finished. On changing boilers the ship-owner is allowed compensation of 8 francs per 100 kilograms of new boilers, if French make, weighed without the pipes.

By article 6 the above allowances, determined by the articles 4 and 5, are paid, after delivery of the register, by the customs collector of the port nearest the place of construction.

Article 9 provides a compensation for the burden laid upon the merchant navy by the recruiting sailors for the military navy by a premium of navigation allowed to French steam and sailing ships for a period of ten years from the promulgation of the present law. This bounty only applies to long-voyage navigation. It is here necessary to explain that in France the navigation is divided into three branches:

Petit cabotage (small coasting) includes all ports between Gibraltar and all the north of Europe, and, by exception, the Newfoundland fisheries.

Grand cabotage (great coasting) includes the ports of the Mediterranean and Black Sea.

Long cours includes all other ports beyond those described in the two above catagories. Provided by Article 9 the bounty is fixed at 1.50 francs per ton net register per 1,000 miles distance on ships of French build. The bounty decreases yearly at the rate of .075 francs per ton on wooden ships; .075 francs per ton on composite ships, and .05 francs per ton on iron ships.

The bounty on ships built abroad is only one-half of that above stipulated. The ships made French before the promulgation of this law are treated in the same way as ships built in France. The bounty is increased 15 per cent. for steamers built on plans approved beforehand by the Marine and Navy Department. The number of miles is calculated by the distance between the starting point and the point of arrival, measured by a direct maritime line. In case of war the merchant ships can be requisitioned by the government. The exceptions from the bounty are, ships employed in the great and small fisheries, subsidized lines, and pleasure navigation craft.

DECLINE OF AMERICAN SHIPPING.

Regarding the wisdom of the French system no opinion is offered; its adoption is evidence that the French builders and ship-owners could

not hold their own in open competition with their British neighbors. France was unable to maintain the struggle; Europe is equally impotent. But what of America? It is quite true that our over-sea carrying tonnage has fluctuated and finally diminished seriously. Let us examine. In 1830 it amounted to 576,475 tons; it trebled during the next twenty years, for by 1850 it had reached 1,583,711 tons. The succeeding decade was one of wonderful growth for the shipping of a comparatively young commonwealth, and by 1860 our over-sea tonnage touched the highest point in its history—2,546,237 tons. At that period shipping engaged in the home trade amounted to 2,752,938 tons, making a grand total of 5,299,175 tons, against 5,710,698 tons aggregated by the whole British Empire.

An American is justified in reflecting and even speaking with pride of the superior energy and hereditary pluck which made the young Republic a formidable rival of the British Empire on the seas. But simultaneously with this great prosperity came war, which drove our merchant navy to seek protection and security under alien flags. That sad event, serious in its consequences as it has been, was not the sole nor most important agency in superseding our position as a maritime nation. By 1860 the American sailing clippers had reached the highest degree of perfection. They were champions of the sea and British competitors felt their superiority and admitted it freely. If the "Yankee liners" had attained perfection, iron screw steamers were in their infancy. Gradually, but certainly, they improved in speed, economy, and carrying power, gaining day by day upon their competitors, defeating them in the Atlantic, Baltic, and China trades, until at last sailing-ships were compelled to act a second and subordinate part. Under these influences our American over-sea carrying tonnage declined over a million tons by 1870; and vessels engaged in the home trade also show a slight diminution during the same period. A further though slight falling off in the over-sea carrying tonnage took place by 1880, counterbalanced, however, by an increase in vessels engaged in the home trade.

MERCHANT NAVIES OF EUROPE.

A table is here inserted showing the tonnage of the merchant navies of the principal maritime countries of Europe, and of the United States, during half a century.

Countries.	1830.	1840.	1850.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
British Empire	2,531,819	3,311,538	4,232,962
Norway	169,197	276,697	298,315
Hamburg	.....	.....	71,257
Bremen	20,206	43,647	67,770
Holland	.....	.....	292,576
Belgium	.....	22,610	34,919
France	.....	662,500	688,158
United States—			
Over-sea trade	576,475	899,765	1,585,711
Home trade and river steamers	591,447	1,240,860	1,899,555

Countries.	1860.	1870.	1880.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
British Empire	5,710,968	7,149,134	8,447,171
Norway	558,927	1,022,515	1,510,669
Sweden	.....	846,862	542,642
Denmark	.....	178,646	251,958
Hamburg	142,416	184,496	244,279
Bremen	121,863	171,654	270,209
German Empire	.....	982,355	1,182,097
Holland	433,922	389,614	328,281
Belgium	33,111	30,149	75,665
Italy	.....	1,012,164	999,196
France	966,124	1,072,048	919,298
Austria-Hungary	.....	329,377	282,571
Greece	263,075	404,063	.....
United States—			
Over-sea trade	2,546,237	1,516,800	1,352,810
Home trade	2,752,938	2,677,940	2,715,224

HOW TO RESTORE AMERICAN SHIPPING.

The foregoing statistics show the decline of our own and the steady and ever increasing growth of British shipping. The cause of this is not far to seek; cost of production alone renders formidable competition impossible. Our merchants and capitalists will not attempt to compete with British ship-owners when handicapped by considerable difference against them in the cost of steam tonnage. When the original price of a ship built in America is 20 per cent. more than that built in the United Kingdom it deters our people from embarking in a business with the odds against them from the first. What is the result? The bulk of American carrying trade is done in British bottoms, and our people are unable to participate in one of the most profitable and promising of commercial ventures. But is there any substantial cause or sound reason why the existing state of things should continue? Our people have demonstrated over and over again their capacity and enterprise in relation to ships and shipping. Fulton showed his superiority over all others in combining every invention to the best advantage. The substitution of the fine entrance and clear run for the old bluff bows and full stern was introduced by our builders; the American sailing clippers were the fastest and finest in naval architecture ever seen on any sea. The Collins line demonstrated that we could build both hull and engine equal to the best. Our sailing-masters are universally admitted to excel in capacity, skill, and character, both for navigating a ship and protecting her interests in foreign ports.

Lest the writer should be suspected of bias favorable to his fellow-citizens, let Mr. Lindsay, the highest authority upon the subject, be quoted. He says:

> I have already shown that this superiority consisted mainly in the fact that American ships can sail faster and carry more cargo, in proportion to their registered tonnage, than those of their competitors; but their improvements did not rest here. In considering the current expenses of a merchantman, manual labor is one of the most important items, and herein our competitors, by means of improved blocks and various other mechanical appliances, so materially reduced the number of hands that twenty seamen in an American sailing-ship could do as much work, probably with more ease to themselves, than thirty in a British vessel of similar size. With such ships we failed successfully to compete; and although we have since far surpassed them in ocean steam navigation, the Americans were the first to dispatch a steamer for trading purposes across the Atlantic.

When efforts were being made to establish a second line of steamers between Newcastle and New York, it was contemplated to build two

steamers on the Tyne, whilst a well-known American firm would construct two more. The measurements, speed, accommodation, and requirements were identical in both cases; and one of the managing owners, himself an experienced navigator, conversant with ships in all their details, states the difference between the cost of British and American ships to be about 20 per cent. in favor of the "old country." I will quote my authority at length. He says:

> The tenders we had for Taurus steamers, 4,500 tons burden, were low at the time we took them; but prices went up shortly afterwards. I then, before the rise, estimated the difference between American and British prices at 20 per cent. at least; but A. B., the steamship builder of New York and Philadelphia, made the difference only 16 per cent.; in fact, he offered to build within that figure of any average tender we could show him from this side. The work I saw in American yards was, to all appearance, equal in quality to work on this side; but there were varieties in design, with a view to economize labor, which may or may not stand the test of actual hard service. The marine engine work was splendid, and, in my opinion, superior to ours on this side. I had no opportunity of testing the quality of iron used in ship-building, but have no doubt it would compare favorably with the material used here.

I have before me the "quantities" and prices of a high-class passenger ship, built on the Tyne, and had intended working out the prices paid for all materials by our ship-builders in excess of what they cost British competitors, upon the basis of our tariff; but I find the articles so numerous and duties so intricate that to carry out my design would involve undue length of schedules and wearying details. But it is absolutely safe to assert that the difference of, say, 20 per cent. in the cost of an American-built ship is accounted for in the higher prices our builder has to pay for the material out of which his vessel is constructed. The price of labor, which in several branches of ship-building, though not in all, is higher on the Delaware than on the Tyne, need not be considered. The wisdom and beneficence of the protective system is assumed for the purposes of this report. But let us examine what are the relative positions of ships and shipping under the present system.

Protection is afforded to most of the articles used in the building, fitting up, and furnishing of a ship. This is done for the encouragement and development of home industry. The cost of producing the ship is, however, thereby enhanced by, say, 20 per cent. But, on the other hand, we have what amounts to free trade in shipping, coasting trade excepted. Upwards of 75 per cent. of our enormous carrying trade is done in foreign tonnage. The ships enter and clear our ports with privileges identical with those enjoyed by vessels sailing under the American flag. They possess advantages in the matter of cost which enable them to pay dividends from profits whilst ours would be losing money, and the natural consequence is that our tonnage engaged in the foreign trade is steadily declining; our great and increasing import and export trade is done under foreign flags; while our people, admirably suited for a trade requiring skill and enterprise, are unable to participate in a profitable—the most profitable—commercial undertaking of the time. If it be an advantage to the nation to protect industries which might be named, employing but trifling capital and labor, would not greater good ensue by placing our ship-builder and ship-owner on an equal footing with foreign competitors? It is maintained that the extra cost of American ship-building material, partly enhanced in consequence of the tariff, amounts to more than the difference of, say, 20 per cent. between the price of an American and a British ship. Therefore, if the American builder received in drawback from the government a sum equal to such extra cost, he could compete upon equal, if not favorable, terms with the

ship-builders of the United Kingdom. A certain amount of tonnage is required to do the over-sea carrying trade of the world. In the abstract it matters not what flag floats over the shipping. If the United States did more carrying trade, the United Kingdom would do less; and the position of our ship-builder would in no way be altered or injured if a million tons of shipping were transferred from the British to the American register to-morrow. The questions which suggest themselves are: 1st. Ought not the American to be placed upon equal terms with the British ship-builder by drawbacks from the Treasury commensurate with the extra cost he pays for his material? or, 2d. Ought not the American merchant and capitalist be permitted to buy tonnage for the foreign trade in the cheapest market? or, 3d. Could not both propositions be embodied in the same measure, having for its object the revival of American shipping?

GROWTH AND PROSPERITY OF BRITISH SHIPPING.

Before speaking directly of the profits of British iron shipping let us consider its growth and expansion. The reaction which followed the close of the Crimean war, together with the successful competition of American tonnage, influenced unfavorably the earnings of wooden ships. Enterprising owners looked around for a remedy. The screw collier John Bowes had proved a commercial success. If iron steamers engaged in the London and Northeastern coal trade left a satisfactory margin of profit, why could the same class of tonnage not be advantageously employed in carrying grain and other merchandise on long voyages? Partnerships were formed and companies organized upon the Tyne and Wear and elsewhere to build or buy large cargo-carrying iron screw steamers to do a "roving" trade—that is, to take cargoes anywhere upon voyages offering the most remunerative freight. The vessels were divided into shares of sixty-four equal parts. The capital was subscribed by men of all classes, and their control intrusted to "managing owners," who were practically sole owners, having entire charge of the ships and other business. A measure of unexampled success followed this venture. Ships in some instances were paying for their first cost by dividends during the first four or five years of their existence. Wealth accumulated rapidly in the coffers of iron-ship owners, and the demand for shares in vessels in course of construction doubled the number at disposal. A fresh lease of prosperity was secured by the opening of the Suez Canal. The irony of history is nowhere more keen and significant than in connection with this great engineering triumph. Lord Palmerston opposed the scheme "upon political grounds." Lord Beaconsfield purchased a controlling influence in the management of the canal upon political grounds. And the government of Mr. Gladstone goes to war, in fact, if not ostensibly, to maintain control and assert supremacy over the great highway to India. The premier's position is tenable; this is a commercial nation; 80 per cent. of the tonnage passing through the canal sails under the British ensign.

Mr. J. H. Beckingham, of this town, has written a clear argument in favor of this proposition: that the war indemnity of the conquered to the conqueror shall consist of a "second canal," free to British tonnage, beyond the cost of maintenance. And the idea is seconded by the Times and indorsed by a score of other journals. No call has yet been made in this connection for "Pam's little finger."

Towards the end of 1869 the Suez Canal was opened to steamers;

ships were constructed upon lines and designs specially adapted for this new road to India. Higher freights were paid to steamers than to sailing vessels to compensate for speed and regularity. Still greater prosperity attended the iron merchant fleet of this country, and by 1873 a perfect building panic had seized the British public. The price of labor and the cost of all ship-building materials had greatly advanced; but ship-building went on unchecked. And a significant index to the prosperity of the trade is found in the fact that throughout the period of general depression which set in with 1874 ship-building was carried on with a profit; it contributed largely to bridge over the "hard times." During this very year (1874) a single firm on the Tyne had shipping valued at £400,000 in course of construction. The price of labor had increased, the cost of coal had trebled in three years, men ignorant in commercial shipping had embarked in the trade; dividends decreased, and the prices of shipping property fell heavily in the market.

Lamentations were heard through press and platform regarding "over-production." It was asserted that sailing ships had depreciated in value to the extent of from 40 to 60 per cent., while the new steam tonnage had fallen off at the rate of from 20 to 40 per cent. in value. Commercial ignorance suffered, the weak went to the wall, and a large amount of tonnage changed hands. It is within my personal knowledge that paid-up shares in steamers were given away at this period. Meanwhile the price of labor and material came tumbling down; Durham coal fell to the nominal price of 4*s.* 3*d.* per ton (realized) for 1879. Moreover, the "compound" was fast superseding the "surface-condensing" engine, whereby a saving of 50 per cent. was effected in fuel without sacrifice of speed. Steamers of a larger carrying capacity were also introduced, and it was discovered that ships of 3,000 tons could be navigated at but a trifle more cost than vessels of 2,000 tons. A maximum carrying capacity with a minimum working expense was the motto upon which the ship-owners acted. All the conditions were favorable to ship-building. Tonnage built at the existing low prices could earn profits when their predecessors could scarcely pay current expenses; these considerations induced thousands to invest capital in steamers.

The superior economy of the compound engines enabled owners to seek more remote markets. British steamers entered the coasting trade of China. The favorite trade of the clippers was invaded, for in 1874 the voyage from Plymouth to Melbourne was made by a Tyne-built cargo boat in forty-three days, half the time required by the fast sailers.

Messrs. Donald Currie & Co. established the South African steam traffic, and steamers were dispatched to San Francisco direct, returning with wheat, and yielding handsome profits to the owners. Indeed, it has been satisfactorily established that steamers of large carrying power and economical in the consumption of coal can generally make the longest voyages and leave a good margin of profit for dividends. But the question of fuel is important, for large consumption of coal means diminished space for cargo. Moreover, beyond, say, 10 knots an hour all gain in speed is obtained at a great expenditure of fuel. The question of quantity consumed to the speed attained is roughly stated as follows: A steamer consuming 10 tons per day to make 10 knots, would consume 22 tons per day to make 13 knots. But regard must be had to the time saved, and consequently to the fuel thus economized by the faster vessel. Experience shows that the faster steamer burns more fuel proportionately than is here stated. Moreover, her sharper model affords her less space for goods. The cargo or "roving" steamer, built for work

and unadorned, yields better returns upon capital invested than the regular liners. Passenger boats are burdened with heavy extra expenditure to provide what constitutes the luxury of ocean traveling. Moreover, let freight be high or low, they must continue in the established trade. In prosperity they flourish, but from "hard times" and low rates they cannot escape. But the ports of the world are open to the "rover," wherefrom to select her voyage. Controlled by far-seeing, energetic owners, who calculate crops and freights and freely use the cable, the "rover" manages to be in the right place in the nick of time, and handsome returns result.

A generous friend, partner with one of the largest ship-owning firms in England, permitted me to extract from his ledgers the earnings of several of their steamers. For obvious reasons the names of both firm and ships are omitted.

The essential particulars are as follows:

Dividends paid on British steamers.

Tonnage of steamer.	Cost of steamer.	Went to sea.	Paid in dividends.	Up to—	Percentage per annum on investment.
2,900	£29,250	June, 1878	£21,000	May, 1882	17$\frac{37}{39}$
2,900	28,250	Sept., 1879	20,000	Aug., 1882	23$\frac{211}{235}$
2,900	28,250	Nov., 1879	23,000	Aug., 1882	27$\frac{175}{235}$
3,200	29,300	Nov., 1880	12,000	Aug. 19, 1882	23$\frac{105}{293}$
3,200	29,300	April 30, 1881	10,000	Aug., 1882	25$\frac{175}{293}$
2,050	25,000	April, 1872	17,235	Feb., 1880	8$\frac{31}{41}$
2,300	32,600	Sept., 1874	26,000	Feb. 20, 1880	14$\frac{78}{163}$
2,300	32,600	Sept., 1874	20,000	April, 1882	8$\frac{153}{326}$

The question of depreciation of property is a consideration not to be ignored. Ships are liable to sink, boilers have to be renewed, repairs become a serious item in expense, and insurance premiums increase with the age of vessels. But, notwithstanding these drawbacks, the profit upon shipping of 19 per cent. is large out of all proportion with what is received from other investments.

OVERPRODUCTION AND DISPLACEMENT.

The cry of overproduction is continually raised in the ship-building trade. It were difficult to state a period in the history of steamers when pessimist cries were not proclaimed. These cries are founded rather upon what their authors see and feel than upon facts connected with the carrying trade of the world. The displacement which is daily taking place through wrecks and otherwise is left out of consideration. The ever-increasing trade of the world and the demand for more tonnage are ignored, while the cry continues, "Ship-building is overdone."

Meanwhile the over-sea tonnage of the United States has fallen off nearly 50 per cent. in twenty years; the shipping of Holland, France, Italy, and Austria-Hungary has seriously declined during the same period. Even in the United Kingdom the tonnage written off in a single year is enormous, and during 1880 was slightly in excess of shipping added to the register. The total loss of the ships of all nations during 1881 is stated at 425 steamers and 2,750 sailing vessels, aggregating 1,250,000 tons.

The following tables will illustrate the increase and displacement of British tonnage from 1877 to 1881, inclusive. Another table, giving the casualties on the British coast during the same years, is inserted:

ADDED TO THE REGISTERS.

Years.	Sailers.		Steamers.		Totals.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1877	941	269, 961	391	223, 971	1, 332	493, 932
1878	745	189, 477	445	275, 034	1, 190	464, 511
1879	519	99, 929	433	310, 875	952	410, 804
1880	440	82, 591	448	329, 145	888	411, 736
1881	433	122, 566	517	439, 184	950	561, 750

British vessels lost on or near the coasts of the United Kingdom during the five years.

TOTAL LOSSES.

Years.	Sailing.		Steam.		Totals.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
1876–'77	645	164, 074	85	54, 387	730	218, 461
1877–'78	532	148, 682	89	53, 145	621	201, 827
1878–'79	551	146, 648	95	63, 646	646	210, 294
1879–'80	507	151, 351	102	77, 662	609	229, 013
1880–'81	838	204, 236	118	78, 443	956	282, 679

SERIOUS CASUALTIES.

Years.	Sailing.		Steam.		Totals.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
1876–'77	1, 221	383, 746	493	311, 012	1, 714	694, 758
1877–'78	921	279, 345	406	272, 437	1, 327	551, 782
1878–'79	839	273, 666	439	293, 732	1, 278	567, 398
1879–'80	781	247, 226	472	349, 838	1, 253	597, 065
1880–'81	831	227, 534	478	345, 962	1, 309	573, 496

PRESENT POSITION OF SHIPPING.

It is difficult to overstate the importance, present and prospective, of British shipping. The steam tonnage that will be built during the current year is stated at 1,170,000 tons. And after deducting 300,000 tons for estimated losses and transfers to foreign flags, the grand total of steam tonnage at the end of 1882 will aggregate about 6,860,000 gross tons, or a dead weight carrying capacity of 9,150,000 tons. If we estimate the price of this immense fleet of merchant steamers at £15 per ton, we get a total value of £137,252,000. To this sum must be added £40,000,000, the estimated value of sailing ships, and we then obtain the enormous total of capital invested in the merchant navy of the United Kingdom, of £177,250,000.

The influence of shipping upon the trades, industries, and professions is most important and universal. Not to speak of the fuel required for construction, every steamer which goes to sea consumes from 10 tons of coal per day upwards.

If we estimate the number of British steamers at 7,500, and the average consumption of coal at 16 tons during three hundred days a year, we have an annual consumption of fuel by these ocean carriers, chiefly British coal, amounting to 36,000,000 tons. Shipping creates a great demand for iron and steel in their various forms and qualities, as well as for engines and boilers, chains and anchors, sails and ropes, for every variety of hardware, crockery and glassware, and for upholstery and carpets, beds and bedding, electric appliances and telephones. Employment is afforded directly and indirectly to an army of men and women of every social grade and intellectual caliber, from the wealthy ship-builder, with his estate in the midlands and his seat in Parliament, to the hard-worked puddler at the furnace. Docks have to be constructed and maintained to accommodate shipping. Insurance companies and clubs give employment to thousands; government officers, customs employés, surveyors, savings-bank clerks, stevedores, and many more derive their livelihood from the traffic of shipping. Men and boys employed in the British mercantile navy during 1880 numbered 190,380.

The local marine office of London pays out £10,000 per month in salaries. The wages paid to British seamen during 1881 amounted to £10,000,000; and the premiums paid on marine insurance during the same year are stated at £10,000,000. Look whither we will and the beneficial influence of shipping is patent. And it is a growing influence, already exceeding in capital invested the mines and irons works of the kingdom combined, and only excelled in this regard by agriculture and railways.

Capital invested in—

Agriculture is stated at	£700,000,000
Railways is stated at	731,000,000
Shipping is stated at	177,250,000
Mines is stated at	56,000,000
Iron works is stated at	29,000,000

From an earnest desire that our people may share the glory and enjoy the advantages arising out of a flourishing mercantile marine, I have written these pages.

There are other branches of the subject upon which I had intended speaking, but my report has already attained too great a length.

I am much indebted to Mr. J. D. Milburn, Mr. Richardson, Mr. Thubron, and others for valuable contributions to the foregoing pages.

EVAN H. JONES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Newcastle-upon-Tyne, September 30, 1882.

THE TIMBER TRADE OF NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

The province of Auckland takes the lead of all others in the colony in the timber trade, if, indeed, it is not the seat of the largest timber trade in the southern hemisphere. The forests are so vast that one

may well stand amazed at the thought of the wealth they will yield to the colony in the near future. I have been informed by Dr. Hector, who is perhaps the highest authority on this subject in Australasia, that the forests of New Zealand cover an area of not less than 20,000,000 acres. The forests on the crown lands alone are estimated at 10,000,000 acres; about 5,000,000 acres are the private property of the white or European population, and the remainder is owned by the Maori or native inhabitants.

THE KAURI PINE.

The country is so well watered and is so adapted to the growth of timber that even when the forests are cut down they soon reproduce themselves; but this productiveness is no excuse for the wanton waste of certain trees in the province of Auckland. For instance, the kauri pine (*Dammara australis*), one of the most valuable trees in the world, is found only in the province of Auckland, and in that district it does not exist farther south than the East Cape, latitude 37° 30′. Like the cedar, of Australia it is confined to the vicinity of the sea. It loves low, sheltered localities and a wet clay soil. The kauri forests cover about 60,000 acres of crown land and about 120,000 acres of private property. The tree often grows to a height of 200 feet and measures from 12 to 30 feet in circumference. Indeed, the kauri is often met with measuring much more than the latter figure. A log which I saw passing through Remuera was 40 feet long and 5 by 5½ feet section. Squared sticks are often got up over 60 feet in length for the keels of vessels. Two trees are known to exist over 20 feet in diameter, one on the east coast and the other on the Tuta-moe Mountains, near Hokianga. This last tree measures exactly one chain (66 feet) in circumference, or 22 feet in diameter. The logs are got out of the bush by rolling or sliding on prepared slip-ways; also loaded on trucks or tramways of wood or iron. Occasionally small locomotives are used. Logs are accumulated in creeks, the waters of which are drained back and suddenly let out during or after a freshet by opening a trap. The logs are then made into rafts and towed to the mill booms. They are then hauled out of the water endways, cut into frames 6 feet 6 inches. They are next tumbled over improved "circulars," which cut them into boards about as fast as a man can walk along the bench.

It was for a long time believed that the kauri pine could not be cut into a deal or gang frame—a theory now exploded. The log frequently nips the saw at starting, and has to be run back to get a new or clear start. The kauri works perfectly into moldings, planed, matched, and covered forms. An entire house may be built without a single knot. Kauri pine, however, has unfortunately the faculty of shrinking endways if used before being thoroughly dry. In free air, sheltered from the sun, or when put under ground, it is almost imperishable. It is not unfrequently dug out of swamps and about the edges of "foot-hills" where it had been lying for hundreds of years.

The tree rises like a tower 100 feet without a branch. The cone is nearly round, and when dry falls to pieces.

Occasionally kauri trees are discovered with a rugged surface, and on being cut the grain is found to be mottled something after the fashion of bird's-eye maple. The kauri is exported largely in what is called "junk," the logs being squared with an axe, thus wasting a considerable quantity of good timber. The kauri splits well for roofing shingles. It also splits tolerably well for fence palings, but is not so good for that

purpose as the celebrated Tasmanian gum, now being largely imported into New Zealand.

The annual output of kauri timber is about 110,000,000 feet, and the highest estimate that I have seen, from authoritative sources, of the amount of timber left in the kauri forests, is 23,000,000,000 feet. So at the present rate of consumption of 110,000,000 feet per annum it will have disappeared at the end of twenty-one years. The subject of conserving the kauri forests is just now attracting much attention throughout the colony, not only on account of the excellent timber it produces, but on account of the gum which exudes from this tree, and which for many years has formed the most valuable article of export of the province of Auckland. The gum is found in a fossilized state about the roots of extinct trees, and more than three thousand men are annually employed in digging for it.

The secretary of the crown lands, in one of his reports, expresses the opinion that the best way of utilizing and conserving the forests of the colony would be to induce a rise in the price of timber, but he does not think that the conservancy would be promoted by any artificial rise occasioned by impost or tax, as that would produce an opposite effect, as there would be less demand for the timber in the colony and for export, and consequently less inducement to bring it to market. He says, "The rise in price, to operate beneficially, must proceed from the greater demand for the article." With the view of inducing this he has made proposals toward opening a trade with Europe in the timbers of the colony.

Large quantities of rain fall in the province of Auckland, and there is a prevalent idea that the forest produces the rain, an idea based upon the Oriental proverb that "the tree is father to the rain;" but the truth is, the reverse is the case. The rain produces the forests. The forests, however, prevent the water from falling too rapidly over the surface of the earth, check evaporation, and equalize the temperature. The annual rainfall in Auckland is set down by the government meteorologist at 38.870 inches. In Dunedin it is 36.063 inches, and in Wellington 46.767 inches; but, while the rain falls heavier in the latter places, it is more frequent in Auckland. In the year 1880 rain fell in Auckland on 193 days, in Dunedin on 179, and in Wellington on 176.

The value of the timber trade to the colony has brought the subject of preserving forests very forcibly before the government, and it is hoped that proper steps will be taken to preserve at least the kauri pine, which is disappearing from New Zealand more rapidly than the famous redwood along the coast of California.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF TIMBER.

Next to the kauri, the kahikatea, a species of white pine, is the most highly prized as a timber tree. It affects low-lying lands in the vicinity of rivers. There is an immense forest of these trees between the Thames and the Piako Rivers, thirty or forty miles in length and several in breadth. The kahikatea is found in the kauri districts, and little attention is paid to it, notwithstanding the fact that its value is becoming very generally known. The wood has a yellowish cast. It is very useful for inside lining, or even for outside work. When kept off the ground it is very durable, and in spite of its liability to decay it has proved to be an excellent timber for shingling purposes, for roofs made of them have been known to keep for a period of ten years. It is now being used for building purposes.

Totara, a hard, close-grained wood, is largely used in the south of New Zealand. It is, in truth, a good, sound timber, reddish in color, and very durable. It makes good wharf-piles and telegraph-poles. It has attracted much attention during the last few years from the fact that it has been discovered that this wood will withstand the disastrous ravages of the *Teredo navalis*, a sea parasite, so common in the islands of the Western Pacific. Mr. McDonald, the engineer of the Auckland harbor board, and who is now building the new dock of that city, which is by far the most extensive work of the kind in Australasia, says that this timber for resisting the *Teredo navalis* is much superior to that of far-famed Australian jarrah.

Puriri is another hard, durable wood. It is largely used in the construction of railway trucks. It makes excellent fence-posts, is smooth and oily. Logs from it have been cut as large as 9 feet in diameter. This wood is said to make excellent furniture, though it is not much used for that purpose. Indeed, there are many valuable trees in New Zealand which could be used for furniture, but the trade is not old enough or extensive enough to justify the holding of large stocks of these woods to supply a demand for seasoned timber. Rimu, rawiri, and mottled kauri are, however, used in limited quantities for that purpose.

Another very valuable timber tree is the maire (*Olea apetala*). It is a native olive. It has a grain resembling the Walian olive. It is hard, oily, and close grained. The heart is used in saw-mills for bearings instead of brass, and is very durable. It is especially valuable for circular-saw spindle bearings.

Pohutukawa is a coast variety of a tree used for ship's knees and boat building. The pohutukawa is one of the best known trees in New Zealand, because large branches of it, bearing beautiful brush-like red flowers, are everywhere cut during the Christmas holidays for the purpose of decorating houses, churches, &c. It is in truth the Christmas tree, and is used just as the people in England and the United States use the cedar, only it is far more beauitful. South of the equator, where the seasons are reversed, Christmas is celebrated in midsummer, with doors and windows open, or on the lawn, with the broad sunshine streaming over hill and dale. The tree affects rocky cliffs. Its leaves are large and thick, of a greenish-blue color on the outside and the inside perfectly white. The trunk is gnarled and twisted in every direction. The inland variety of this tree is called the rata. There is a curious growth clinging to the rata which has been the cause of much speculation amongst scientists. It has not yet been decided whether it is deposited as a seed in the forks of high trees, or whether it creeps up from the ground like the ivy. It is found as a mere thread on the trunk. It thickens and sends out side shoots, and intertwines as the ivy intertwines the oak. In time the large tree perishes, and the frail, slender growth stands alone, with its arms outstretched, embracing the circular space where its old supporter formerly stood; and what is perhaps most wonderful of all, the stems that have grown around and about the same supporting tree will unite and form one hollow rata tree, with bark inside and out. The rata makes elegant knees for ships.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE TREES OF NEW ZEALAND.

The useful and durable timbers of New Zealand are divided into three classes, of which I subjoin a carefully-prepared table:

CLASS I.—*Timbers of great durability, adapted for general building purposes or constructive works, &c.*

	Systematic name.	Family.	Native name.	Settlers' name.
	A.—FOR GENERAL BUILDING PURPOSES.			
1.	**Dammara australis**, *Lam.*	Coniferæ	Kauri	Kauri.
2.	**Podocarpus Totara**, *A. Cunn*	do	Totara	Totara.
3.	spicata, *Br*	do	Matai	Black pine.
4.	**Libocedrus Doniana**, *Endl*	do	Kawaka	Arbor vitæ.
5.	Bidwillii, *Hook. f.*	do	Pahautea	Cedar.
6.	**Phyllocladus trichomanoides**, *Don*	do	Tanekaha	Celery-topped pine.
7.	**Dacrydium Colensoi**, *Hook*	do	Manoao	Manoao.
8.	Westlandicum, *n. s*	do		Westland pine.
9.	intermedium, *n. s*	do		Yellow silver pine.
10.	**Fagus Menziesii**, *Hook*	Cupuliferæ	Tawai	Round-leaved beech.
	B.—FOR CONSTRUCTIVE WORKS OR SPECIAL PURPOSES.			
11.	**Vitex littoralis**, *A. Cunn*	Verbenaceæ	Puriri	New Zealand teak.
12.	**Fagus fusca**, *Hook. f*	Cupuliferæ	Hutu tawhai	Tooth-leaved beech.
13.	**Metrosideros tomentosa**, *A. Cunn*	Myrtaceæ	Pohutukawa	Pohutukawa.
14.	robusta, *A. Cunn*	do	Rata	Rata.
15.	lucida, *Menzies*	do	do	Ironwood.
16.	**Leptospermum ericoides**, *A. Rich*	do	Rawiri	Tea-tree.
17.	**Sophora tetraptera**, *Aiton*	Leguminosæ	Kowhai	Kowhai.
18.	**Olea apetala**, *Vahl*	Jasmineæ	Maire raunui	Black maire.
19.	**Eugenia Maire**, *A. Cunn*	Myrtaceæ	Maire tawhake	Maire tawhake.

CLASS II.—*Timbers adapted for general building or special purposes, but not possessing great durability.*

20.	**Dacrydium cupressinum**, *Soland*	Coniferæ	Rimu	Red pine.
21.	**Podocarpus dacrydioides**, *A. Rich*	do	Kahikatea	White pine.
22.	**Podocarpus ferruginea**, *Don*	do	Miro	Miro.
23.	**Fagus Solandri**, *Hook. f*	Cupuliferæ	Tawhai	Entire-leaved beech.
23A.	**Fagus Cliffortioides**, *Hook. f*	do		
24.	**Weinmannia silvicola**, *Banks and Sol*	Saxifrageæ	Towai	Towai.
25.	**Weinmannia racemosa**, *Forst*	do	Tawhero	Tawhero.
26.	**Atherosperma Novæ-Zelandiæ**, *Hook. f*	Monimiaceæ	Pukatea	Pukatea.
27.	**Elæocarpus dentatus**, *Vahl*	Tiliaceæ	Hinau	Hinau.
28.	**Elæocarpus Hookerianus**, *Raoul*	do	Pokako	Pokako.
29.	**Nesodaphne Tawa**, *Hook. f*	Laurineæ	Tawa	Tawa.
30.	**Nesodaphne Taraire**, *Hook. f*	do	Taraire	Taraire.
31.	**Alectryon excelsum**, *D. C*	Sapindaceæ	Titoki	Titoki.
32.	**Ixerba brexioides**, *A. Cunn*	Saxifrageæ	Tawari	Tawari.
33.	**Tetranthera calicaris**, *Hook. f*	Laurineæ	Mungeao	Mungeao.
34.	**Knightia excelsa**, *Br*	Proteaceæ	Rewarewa	Honeysuckle.
35.	**Hedycarya dentata**, *Forst*	Monimiaceæ	Kaiwhiria	Whitewood.
36.	**Dysoxylum spectabile**, *Hook. f*	Meliaceæ	Kohekohe	Cedar.

CLASS III.—*Timbers chiefly of small dimensions, but adapted for various purposes.*

37.	**Drimys axillaris**, *Forst*	Magnoliaceæ	Horopito	Pepper-tree.
37A.	colorata, *Raoul*	do	do	Do.
38.	**Pittosporum eugenioides**, *A. Cunn*	Pittosporeæ	Tarata	Tarata.
39.	crassifolium, *Banks and Sol*	do	Kihii	Kihii.
40.	tenuifolium, *Banks and Sol*	do	Kohuhu	Turpentine-tree.
41.	**Melicytus ramiflorus**, *Forst*	Violaceæ	Mahoe	Mahoe.
42.	**Plagianthus betulinus**, *A. Cunn*	Malvaceæ	Houi	Ribbonwood.
43.	**Melicope ternata**, *Forst*	Rutaceæ	Wharangi pirou	Wharangi pirou.
44.	**Pennantia corymbosa**, *Forst*	Olacineæ	Kaikomako	Kaikomako.
45.	**Dodonæa viscosa**, *Forst*	Sapindaceæ	Akeake	Akeake.
46.	**Corynocarpus lævigata**, *Forst*	Anacardiaceæ	Karaka	Karaka.
47.	**Quintinia serrata**, *A. Cunn*	Saxifrageæ		Quintinia.
48.	**Carpodetus serratus**, *Forst*	do	Piripiriwhata	White mapau.
49.	**Ackama rosæfolia**, *A. Cunn*	do	Makamaka	Makamaka.
50.	**Leptospermum scoparium**, *Forst*	Myrtaceæ	Manuka	Small tea-tree.
51.	**Myrtus bullata**, *Banks and Sol*	do	Ramarama	Ramarama.

CLASS III.—*Timbers chiefly of small dimensions, &c.*—Continued.

Systematic name.	Family.	Native name.	Settlers' name.
52. pedunculata, *Hook. f.*	do	Rohutu	Rohutu.
53. Fuchsia excorticata, *Linn. f*	Onagraceæ	Kohutuhutu	Fuchsia.
54. Panax crassifolium, *Dec and Planch.*	Araliaceæ	Horoeka	Lancewood.
55. Griselinia littoralis, *Raoul*	Corneæ	Poukata	Broadleaf.
56. Coprosma arborea, *n. s*	Rubiaceæ	Karamu	Tree-karamu.
57. Olearia Traversii, *Muell*	Compositæ	Akeake	Akeake.
58. ilicifolio, *Hook. f*	do		Native holly.
59. dentata, *Hook. f*	do		Do.
60. Dracophyllum latifolium, *A. Cunn.*	Epacrideæ	Neinei	Neinei.
61. Traversii, *Muell*	do		Grass-tree.
62. Myrsine Urvillei, *A. De C*	Myrsineæ	Mapau	Mapau.
63. salicina, *Heward*	do	Tipau	Long-leaved mapau.
64. Sapota costata, *A. De C.*	Sapoteæ	Pau	Pau.
65. Olea lanceolata, *Hook. f*	Jasmineæ	Maire	Maire.
66. Cunninghamii, *Hook. f*	do	do	Do.
67. Santalum Cunninghamii, *Hook. f.*	Santalaceæ	do	Do.
68. Avicennia officinalis, *Linn*	Verbenaceæ	Maanawa	Mangrove.
69. Myoporum lætum, *Forst*	do	Ngaio	Ngaio.
70. Persoonia Toro, *A. Cunn*	Proteaceæ	Toro	Toro.
71. Epicarpurus microphyllus, *Raoul*	Urticeæ	Towai	Milk-tree.
72. Phyllocladus glauca, *Carr*	Coniferæ	Toatoa	Toatoa.
73. alpinus, *Hook. f*	do	do	Alpine toatoa.

SAW-MILLS IN NEW ZEALAND.

The number of saw-mills in the colony is steadily increasing. I suppose it would be safe to estimate the number of mills in operation at about 250. In 1879 there were 204, and at that time Mr. Lecoy, in a report to the New Zealand Government, estimated the yearly supply from each of these mills at 1,000,000 superficial feet, or about 200,000,000 superficial feet as the total annual product. The sawn and round timber annually supplied out of the forests of the colony would together represent a cubic volume equal to 400,000,000 of superficial feet.

PRICE OF TIMBER.

The average annual value of sawn timber at Auckland, Wellington, Invercargill, and Dunedin is $3.12 for 100 superficial feet.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF TIMBER.

I give below a table showing the quantity and value of the various kinds of timber imported into the colony for the year 1881:

Table showing the quantity, in detail and value of timber imported into the colony of New Zealand for the year 1881, *with the amount of duty paid on same.*

Timber.	Quantity.	Value.	Duty received.
		£	£ s. d.
Deals ..... superficial feet	335, 561	2, 567	335 11 0
Laths ..... number	285, 833	324	28 11 9
Logs ..... do	3, 923	10, 307	Free.
Palings ..... do	1, 471, 905	9, 152	1, 471 17 2
Posts ..... do	17, 475	481	99 18 3
Rails ..... do	56, 976	1, 781	114 1 8
Sawn, undressed ..... superficial feet	3, 684, 817	26, 385	2, 434 15 6
Do ..... do	217, 937	2, 109	Free.
Sawn, dressed ..... do	154, 815	1, 067	309 13 7
Shingles ..... number	3, 991, 140	2, 601	399 2 8
Shafts, spokes, naves, and felloes:			
Rough	93, 492	3, 532	Free.
Dressed ..... packages	123	42	6 7 8
Do ..... do	126	476	Free.
Shafts (buggy), wheel-rims, and other bent carriage timber .. do	481	576	Free.
Other kinds ..... packages	142	211	Free.
..... number	2, 500		

The subjoined tables show the quantity and value of timber exported from the colony for the years 1880 and 1881:

Timber exported from New Zealand during the year 1880.

Kind.	Quantity.	Value.
Sawn ..... feet..	7,611,576	$201,605
Hewn ..... bulk feet..	154,592	1,880
Logs ..... number..	2,533	54,100

Timber exported from New Zealand during the year 1881.

Kind.	Quantity.	Value.
Logs ..... number..	1,709	$30,920
Palings ..... do....	600	30
Sawn, undressed ..... feet..	7,132,926	147,865
Dressed ..... do....	6,046,394	177,980
Shingles ..... number..	28,000	95
Other kinds ..... packages..	2,965	12,630
Firewood ..... tons..	48	100

DUTY ON TIMBER.

The duty charged on sawn rough timber, imported into the colony, is 2*s.* (48 cents) per 100 superficial feet, and on sawn dressed timber 4*s.* (96 cents) per 100 superficial feet. The duty on shingles and laths, per 1,000, is 2*s.* (48 cents); on palings, 2*s.* per 100; on posts, 8*s.* ($1.92) per 100; and on rails, 4*s.* (96 cents) per 100. The Government of New Zealand has considered this duty necessary in order to protect their timber industry.

AMERICAN YELLOW PINE.

The duty, however, bears very heavily upon certain American timbers for which they have no good substitute in New Zealand. For instance, large quantities of the American yellow pine are used in the colony. Among the many uses to which this pine is applied is that of making ferrules for surface condenser tubes. Indeed for this purpose no other timber in the world can be compared to it, the wood being mild, soft, and compressible. The material of these ferrules has to be compressed in its substance by being forced through a die, while a tapered mandrel is forced through the center. The water coming in contact with the ferrule expands its substance, causing it to make a steam-tight joint. Another excellent quality of the yellow pine is that it does not warp or shrink.

THE AUCKLAND TIMBER COMPANY.

All the saw-mills of New Zealand appear to be doing a thriving business, but the most extensive industry of the kind in the colony is "The Auckland Timber Company."

This company was established in December, 1877. It was formed out of the business of Mr. George Holdship, the present managing director. Mr. Holdship began the timber business in the colony over twenty years ago, and all his ideas about it have been eminently broad and practical. When the Auckland Timber Company was established its capital was about £60,000 sterling. It has since been increased to £120,000, of

which £80,000 has been subrented. It is divided into 24,000 shares, at £5 cash.

The company owns some very valuable property, a great part of which consists of kauri forests, which was acquired years ago, long before the great value of this grand timber became fully understood, and of course were purchased at a very small price. The timber lands now in possession of the company, I have been informed, are so extensive that, even at the present rate of consumption, years will elapse before a new supply will be needed. At Waugaroa the company has a double saw-mill complete, together with freehold, leasehold, and agreements for extensive forests; at Port Charles, a single saw-mill, with freehold and leasehold forests; at Kennedy's Bay, the saw-mill and forests recently owned by Messrs. Cruickshank & Co. In addition to the above there are about 5,000 acres of freehold forest land at Mangonui, with an excellent mill site, on which the company propose to erect a mill. At these mills and in the creeks, ready to be floated out by freshets, there is a supply of over 12,000,000 feet of log timber, which they are capable of converting into sawn timber at the rate of about 170,000 feet per week.

These properties are situated at points along the east coast, convenient for shipping to all colonial ports, and affording every facility for carrying on an extensive business in every description of timber. In Auckland there is the sash and door manufactory, at Newton, also the buildings, machinery, and leases of allotments in Custom-house street east and west. These include the lease, for sixty-six years, of 500 feet of water frontage on the reclaimed land opposite the gas company's works, on which the company has erected a series of splendid buildings, surpassing anything of the kind in the southern hemisphere. The buildings cover an area of about 1¼ acres. The main building is three stories in height, and contains every possible kind of wood-working machinery of the latest and most improved English and American manufacture. This machinery is driven by six steam engines, the largest of which is a pair 20-inch cylinder, high pressure. The total weight of machinery, engines, shafting, gear, &c., is from 700 to 800 tons, and the total length of shafting about 700 feet. In addition to the working machinery, the company does most of its own engineer work, and has therefore fitted up forges, engineer's lathes, drilling, planing, and shaping machines, and other necessary plant for this department. This mill is capable of sawing and manufacturing into various forms 1,000,000 feet of timber per month. The number of hands employed is about 350. Vessels load and unload alongside the mill wharf.

The offices and store are separated from the mill building by a street 100 feet wide, and connected by a suspension bridge, by which the manufactured goods are conveyed from the mill to the store. These buildings are built of brick in the most substantial manner, with five floors, each having an area of about 5,000 feet. An elevator lift, 9 feet square, runs from bottom to top, worked by a steam engine, which is also used to drive a putty mill and other machinery.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, New Zealand, August 15, 1882.

WARNING TO AMERICAN SHIPPING-MASTERS.

REPORT BY CONSUL ASTWOOD ON THE DANGEROUS CONDITION OF THE ENTRANCE TO THE HARBOR OF SAN DOMINGO.

I deem it my duty to bring to the knowledge of the Department the condition of this port, which, in my judgment, is detrimental in a measure to American commerce.

The entrance to the river is dangerous in the extreme to vessels drawing more than 11 feet of water. Merchants chartering vessels with a greater draft jeopardize not only the interests of ship-owners and insurance companies, but those of the United States Government, by causing an extraordinary expense for mariners' relief. If this government were in a position to spend upon the mouth of the river a million of dollars, conducted by some of our experienced engineers, it would be one of the best ports in the West Indies.

Since the stranding of the American bark Mignon, which I reported by last mail, three other vessels have run aground upon the bar; fortunately, the weather was smooth, and they were hauled off.

On the 14th instant the American brig Newbern, of about 500 tons burden, drawing 11½ feet of water, ran aground on entering the port. Being at ebb tide, she was hauled off as soon as the tide flooded; but for the smoothness of the weather she would have become a complete wreck.

Merchants should be advised that in chartering vessels for this port they should not draw more than 11½ feet of water or 12 feet the outside when loaded. It would be perfectly safe to charter vessels of such a size, but it is hazardous in the extreme to freight vessels for this port of a heavier draft until some reparation will have been made at the mouth of the river Ozama.

Some enterprising engineer might find it to his interest to consult with the Dominican Government about the matter, and I am persuaded that an enterprising American with a small tug-boat here for the use of this port would make money, and would be a blessing to our commerce.

The captain and crew of the Mignon are still employed wrecking the vessel. Very nearly all of the machinery has been saved, with every prospect of saving the whole; but, owing to the lack of facilities here, I think the vessel will be a complete wreck. I have rendered all of the assistance in my power both to the captain and insurance agent. The crew have not yet been discharged, which has been a great relief to the consulate.

H. C. C. ASTWOOD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
San Domingo, July 15, 1882.

HYDROGRAPHIC INFORMATION.

MADAGASCAR, ZANZIBAR, AND EAST COAST OF AFRICA.

I inclose herewith certain hydrographic information, recently published in the Official Gazette of this city, relative to the coasts of Mada-

gascar, Zanzibar, and the east coast of Africa, thinking the information therein contained might be turned to some use by our marine.

JAS. W. SILER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cape Town, August 17, 1882.

MOZAMBIQUE.

MOZAMBIQUE HARBOR.—For entering by the south channel the correct bearing of Cabeceira Grande light-house is N. by W. ½ W., and not N. by W. ½ W., the bearing formerly given. The iron scaffolding of this light-house has been replaced by a sort of turret.[1]

On rounding St. Sebastian fort a small black buoy with staff will be seen; this buoy should be passed on the starboard hand.

The Union Steamship Company have moored for the use of their vessels a large red buoy which lies NW. ½ W., 3 cables from the head of the custom-house pier, and W. by N. ½ N., 7 cables from the angle of Sebastian fort. Vessels should not pass northward of this buoy.

No wreck buoys were seen; they have probably been removed.

At low water springs, boats cannot go alongside the custom-house pier.

A small supply of Welsh coal can be purchased at £3 a ton.

ST. GEORGE ISLAND OR GOA.—A white conical beacon is built on the north extreme of St. George Island.

[The information contained in this notice is to be carefully considered, to be noted in the sailing directions, and compared with the chart when the ship is navigating the parts to which it refers.]

HYDROGRAPHIC NOTICE—No. 18.

SOUTH INDIAN OCEAN.

NOTICE No. 20.

MADAGASCAR.

The following information relating to the coast of Madagascar is derived from the remark books of officers of Her Majesty's ships employed on the East Indian Station, and from other sources, 1881.

[*All bearings are magnetic. Variation in* 1882.]

St. Augustine Bay 18° 10′ *W. Nos Bek* 9° 50′ *W.*

WEST COAST.

ST. AUGUSTINE BAY.[2]—*Nos Bey.*—Good anchorage was found by Her Majesty's ship Philomel (in September), in 4 fathoms, half a mile eastward of the northwest extreme of Nos Vey Island. This anchorage would be insecure in the months of January and February.

A few French and two English traders have settled on Nos Vey, as being safer than the mainland, where the natives are treacherous.

Exports.—The principal exports are beans, Indian corn, and Orchilla weed.

Water is brought daily, for the use of the traders in boats, from the mouth of the St. Augustine River.

Tullear Bay affords safe and commodious anchorage throughout the year.

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[1] *See* Admiralty Chart: Primeira Islands to Mozambique, No. 651; Mozambique Harbor, No. 652; scale $m=2$ inches; Conducia, Mozambique, and Mocambo ports, No. 653; scale $m=0.8$ inch. Also Africa Pilot, part 3, pages 209–214.

[2] *See* Admiralty Chart: St. Augustine and Tullear Bays, No. 692, Cape St. Mary to Cape St. Vintcent, No. 760, and Hydrographic Notice, No. 11, of 1881. Remark Book of Commander H. Berners, Her Majesty's ship Philomel, 1881.

In the vicinity of the bay the country is low, but at a short distance inland it rises into a lofty range of hills.

There are two English and two French trading establishments at Tullear Bay, also a Norwegian mission. It is reported the natives are lawless and troublesome.

Supplies.—Beef and firewood can be obtained, but the water is not good.

Climate.—The rainy season is during the months of November to March, inclusive. Southwest winds prevail all the year round.

MURDER ISLAND.[1]—It is stated by the French traders that on Murder Island reef there are forty or fifty cannon and two anchors, overgrown with coral, but plainly visible, evidently the remains of some large vessel that had struck on the reef.

Grave Island is rendered conspicuous by nine straggling trees, whilst the other islands have only low bushes growing on them.[2]

MOURONDAVA.—*Macé Shoal.*—The French Government has given notice, dated 22d September, 1881, of the reported existence of a shoal (*Macé Shoal*) lying about 8 miles W.SW. from Mourondava, in latitude 13° 27′ S., longitude 48° 16′ 30″ E. (approx.), over which there is said to be a depth of 6 feet.[3]

NOS BEH.[4]—A coral bank with two fathoms at low water (Héloise Shoal) lies in the southern entrance to Great Road, Nos Beh, in latitude 13° 27″ S., longitude 48° 16′ 30″ E. (approx.), midway between Tani-Keli Islet and Nos Cumba with the north and northwest extremes of Nos Cumba in line.[5]

Coal—Mails.—The French Company, Roux, Frassinet & Co., have a supply of coal for the use of their steam vessels, which run a monthly mail to Bourbon, Tamatave, and St. Mary's, the same steam vessel going to Mayotta. The French Government also keep a small supply of patent fuel at Nos Beh for their vessels of war.[6]

PASSANDAVA BAY.—*Touareg Shoal.*—This danger, on which the ship Touareg struck, is composed of coral 2½ cables long in a N.NW. and S.SE. direction, and three-quarters of a cable in width, with a least depth over it at low water of about 11 feet; it lies with the following bearings: northwest extreme of Nos Cumba N. 47° E., Point Pouhang N. 74° W., and Tani-Keli (Ninepin's Islet) N. 11° W.[7]

EAST COAST.

St. Mary's Island.[8]—The resident and the medical officer are now the only Europeans at the French Government establishment at port St. Mary.

Black Rock.—A conspicuous white stone tower, with a flagstaff, marks the Iron or Black Rock, south of the entrance to port St. Mary, and is a good mark when coming from the southward for St. Mary's anchorage.

Wreck.—About 1½ miles southeast of Ile de Nattes, on the edge of the reef, is the wreck of a vessel, the stern of which is visible 5 or 6 miles, and when first seen has the appearance of a rock.

Saphir Bank.[9]—A bank of sand and coral 1½ miles in extent, east and west, with 8 fathoms in the center and 13 fathoms at the extremes, is reported by the French schooner Saphir to exist, 11 miles east of the southern point of St. Mary Island. The depth of 8 fathoms is in latitude 17° 06′ S., longitude 50° 02′ E. (approx.).

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY,
London, June 7, 1882.

[The substance of this notice, as soon as it is received on board, is to be inserted in red ink on the charts affected by it, and introduced into the margin, or otherwise in the page, of the Sailing Directions to which it relates. *See* Admiralty Instructions, Navigation and Pilotage, pp. 312 and 313.]

NOTICE TO MARINERS—No. 97.

AFRICA—EAST COAST, ZANZIBAR.

SHOAL IN ENGLISH PASS.

Information has been received from Commander Mather Byles, Her Majesty's ship Seagull, of the existence of a shoal (over which that vessel passed on the 9th March, 1882) lying near the fairway of English Pass, northern approach to Zanzibar Harbor.

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[1] *See* Admiralty Charts: Cape St. Mary to Cape St. Vintcent, No. 760. Cape St. Andrew to Cape St. Vintcent, No. 759, and Africa Sheet V., No. 597.
[2] Remark Book of Commander H. Berners, H. M. S. Philomel, 1881.
[3] Notice to Mariners, No. 198, of 1881.
[4] *See* Admiralty Charts: Cape St. Andrew to Antongil Bay, 758. Passandava Bay, No. 706.
[5] Notice to Mariners, No. 198, of 1881.
[6] Remark Book of Navigating, Lieut. J. Rogers, H. M. S. Seagull, 1881.
[7] Notice to Mariners, No. 5, of 1882.
[8] *See* Admiralty Charts: Antongil Bay to Matatane, 759; Island and Port St. Mary, 683. Remark Book of Lieut. J. Cuddy, H. M. S. Eclipse, 1881.
[9] *See* Admiralty Charts: Antongil Bay to Matatane, 759; Island and Port St. Mary, 683. Notice issued by the captain of the Port Reunion, 9th January, 1882.

This shoal (Seagull Shoal), about 80 yards long in a north and south direction, and 40 yards in width, consists of black sand and coral, with a least depth of 12 feet at low-water spring tides over a coral head, and 3¼ fathoms close around. It lies with the following bearing and distances:

Large House on Bet-el-Rás S.SE. ¼ E.
West extreme of Chango Island, SW. ¼ W., distant 2¼ miles.
White square castellated house north of Bet-el-Rás E. ¼ N., distant 1¼ miles.
These bearing place Seagull Shoal in latitude 6° 5′ 10″ S., longitude 39° 11′ 15″ E.

(*The bearings are magnetic. Variation 10¼° westerly in 1882.*)

By command of their lordships.

FREDK. J. EVANS,
Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY OFFICE,
London, May 25, 1882.

This notice affects the following admiralty charts: Africa, east coast, sheet 10, No. 664; Pangani to Rás Kimbiji, No. 640*b*; Zanzibar Harbor and approaches, No. 665; also, Africa Pilot, Part III, 1878, pages 342, 347, 348.

JAPANESE MANUFACTURES.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN, OF YOKOHAMA.

The most important manufactures of Japan are silk, silk thread, cotton, tea, porcelain, lacquer, bronze, and embroidery, although iron and wooden ware, and various articles of use and ornament, are made in large quantities. With the exception of porcelain, most of these industries are carried on in the houses of the laborers.

Silk.—The value of silk exported during the year, 30th of June, 1881, as gathered from the customs returns, is as follows:

	Yen.
Silk floss	88,667.95
Silk waste	919,688.80
Raw silk	12,015,7?5.63
Silk manufactures	81,242.56
Silkworm eggs	582,562.94

The value of the whole product for the year 1880 I find stated in the statistical tables of the home department as about fifty-four and a half million of dollars.

Tea.—I have put down tea as an article of manufacture, for, although it is of a shrub, its treatment and preparation are such as to entitle it to be treated under this head. The firing and preparation of tea for market, as practiced in Japan, is as follows:

The Japanese green teas may be divided into these general classes, colored, uncolored, and basket fired. The leaf used for all these is from the same plant, differing only in quality, condition, &c. All teas used by foreigners are first fired by the natives in the places where grown. If a grade of colored tea is to be made, this fired leaf (4 or 5 pounds) is taken and put into iron pans or bowls, which are heated, sometimes up to a temperature of 212° F. The leaves are then rapidly stirred by hand against the smooth iron surfaces some twenty minutes. A teaspoonful of thoroughly pulverized soapstone (saponite) and five grains or so of powdered Chinese indigo are placed in the pan and thoroughly rubbed into the leaf for about twenty minutes more, when one-half a

teaspoonful of soapstone or gypsum and pulverized tamarack bark (a species of larch) is added, and the stirring and rubbing is continued for twenty minutes more. It is then put into cold pans and simply cold rubbed against the iron surfaces until it has the required polish, which is arrived at in from forty minutes to an hour.

This is the ordinary way of preparing colored tea. Other materials are perhaps sometimes used, but as far as I can learn all are as harmless as these mentioned. The different manufacturers, of course, vary the process a little now and then to produce slight changes of color. The leaf is then run through three to five sizes of sieves, till all the dust and loose coloring matter is separated. The shrinkage is about 12 per cent.

This coloring process is considered beneficial to the leaf, tending to preserve its shape and flavor. There can be no doubt that the Japanese prepared teas are far superior in purity to the Chinese. In coloring Chinese teas various drugs are used that are deleterious to health, unless it be that the heat to which they are subjected renders them innocuous. Prussian blue is frequently used instead of indigo in their green and black lead in their black teas. Uncolored teas are heated in the same way and quantities and rubbed against the iron pans until the surfaces have the desired polish, and are then sifted until nothing but the whole leaves are left.

Basket-firing is done in bamboo baskets, shaped something like our hour-glasses, which are shaken over hot pans. The leaf is put into the upper lobe of the basket and worked into the lower, and so back and forth until finished. The loss of weight is about 3 per cent.

Porcelain.—The older manufactures of porcelain in Japan, such especially as the Satsuma, Owari, Imari, and Kutani wares, have long been sought after and secured as treasures by those professing taste and knowledge in such matters. The more modern productions, however, in this branch of manufactures will, in my opinion, if they do not already, surpass the older kinds. The chief want in Japanese porcelain is regular symmetry in the pieces and uniformity in a set or any number of pieces. The absence of these is owing to the non-use of machines or forms for molding and defective ovens in which the heat is not evenly distributed.

The decorations, however, are so charming, and so different from any seen elsewhere, that the defects of shape are made tolerable; but what a great advance will be made when a radical cure shall be effected in the direction I have indicated is seen in instances of sets of well-shaped foreign porcelain, finely painted by Japanese artists.

Manufacturers here, I am glad to say, are now manifesting much interest in the questions of how to improve in the character, symmetry, and uniformity of their wares, and I have every reason to believe that a few years will see them entering into competition with foreign manufacturers in the exportation of porcelain.

I lately visited the porcelain works at Sèto, in Aichi Ken, as I have informed the Department, and was much interested in examining the whole process of manufacture, from the reception of the clay to its final finishing touches as an exquisite cup, plate, or vase. The clay pits at Sèto have been worked, it is said, for 2,000 years or more, and the enormous deposits seem scarcely more than scraped. Cobalt, used in coloring, is found in the same hills, and the clay being of an excellent character, no reason seems to exist why, with the introduction and use of foreign molding machines and improved ovens, the Sèto proprietors and

other Japanese porcelain manufacturers should not turn out a very large yearly product of excellent ware, so formed and prepared as to please the taste and supply the wants of foreigners.

The United States imports about $24,000,000 worth of this necessary manufacture every year, and it would appear that much of this might be supplied at a less price by the Japanese than others. Labor is so cheap, plentiful, and skillful in this country, and the artistic tastes of the people so universal, that beautiful articles of porcelain can be manufactured and placed upon the market in sufficient quantities and at prices so low as to be within reach of the majority of the inhabitants of the civilized world. Especially is this applicable to the people of the American Pacific coast.

Freight from Japan to California, Oregon, and the Southern Pacific countries may be had at a very low figure, and when the Japanese once achieve the manufacture of good-shaped tea and dinner sets and all the different articles of porcelain and crockery in use in American households, and decorate them with their exquisite native designs, and offer them at a price lower than the plain ware now brought from other countries, they will, in my judgment, almost, if not entirely, absorb this trade in that region.

The value of porcelain, as returned by the customs, exported during the fiscal year 1881 was 191,202.35 yen; and of earthenware, 402,635.79 yen.

If the improvements I suggest shall be introduced, these figures, in a few years, will be transformed into millions.

THOS. B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Yokohama, Japan.

THE FEAST OF LANTERNS IN JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES, OF NAGASAKI.

There are more ancient customs observed among the people at Nagasaki than perhaps in any other part of Japan. It is a very old city and its people cling to the memory of the remote past and the observance of its traditions.

Exclusive as Japan has formerly been, adventurous travelers nevertheless occasionally penetrated its mysterious barriers, and we have the history of their impressions written more than three hundred years ago. In these memoranda of travel, Nagasaki is always the port at which they entered, and it is here they witnessed many of the curious customs of the people, which are observed at the present day in every particular.

Having myself been a witness on two anniversaries of one very interesting custom mentioned by these early travelers and which characterizes the reverence of the Japanese for their dead, I have thought a brief description of it might not be without interest to the Department.

This festival, or "feast of lanterns," as it is called, is a purely Buddhist ceremony and as such is commemorated more by the Heimin, or working classes (who form the main body of the believers in Buddha), rather than by the official classes, who are understood to be Shintôists.

The Buddhist religion as practiced in Japan is remarkable for the excessive reverence and ceremony which it inculcates in connection

with the memory of the dead. This is evidenced by the constant care and attention bestowed by the people upon the graves of their relatives and ancestors. At all times these graves are kept clean and decked with flowers, and hardly any Buddhist grave is to be seen without a cup of rice and a jar of tea or water, placed there for the refection of the spirit of the departed, should it (as it is supposed frequently to do) see fit to revisit the scenes of its earthly career. These graves, which are very numerous, are situated amidst groves of ornamental trees and flowering plants and beautify the picturesque hill-sides about Nagasaki.

Besides the ordinary care of the places of sepulture, the Buddhist religion also inculcates distinct commemorative ceremonies to be celebrated by the relatives of the deceased upon the first, third, and seventh anniversaries of the death, and in the case of distinguished personages, or the heads of families, at the fiftieth and even one hundred and fiftieth anniversaries, but in the vast majority of ordinary work-day lives (or rather deaths), after the seventh anniversary, the memory of the departed and the propitiatory ceremonies to their spirits are celebrated in the one common and universal spirit festival of the lanterns.

This festival takes place about the 1st of September in each year, and is held as a three days' holiday by all classes. Thousands of the people from the neighboring country, in their best attire, flock to the city on these occasions, to visit their relatives and friends and take part in the ceremony.

The ceremonial then observed is distinctly laid down and zealously carried out, and the reasons therefor are probably more clearly understood by the semi-civilized observers than are the more logical sacraments of our own religions.

Upon the first day of the feast, the ghosts of the departed are supposed to leave the spirit-land, in order to revisit their homes upon earth. Upon this day the head of each family, being dressed in his best apparel, sits in the reception room of his house, the entrances to which are all thrown open. At frequent intervals he bows ceremoniously and utters words of welcome, in order that the spirits as they enter may not feel themselves to be neglected. This procedure is carried on far into the night, especially by such conscientious Buddhists as have numerous spirits to receive.

On the second day all the spirits are supposed to have arrived, and the household temple (a small cabinet apartment which is to be found in the house of every believer in Buddha, set apart for the use of the dead) is gaily decorated with flowers and filled with choice stores of fruit, rice, tea, wine, and other delicacies. The family of the house, sitting in the room to which the spirit-chamber is attached, hold high festival, eating and drinking and enjoying themselves after the Japanese fashion. This feasting of the living with the spirits of the dead continues throughout the whole of the second day and the greater part of the third.

But the night of the third day is the time appointed when the ghosts must return to their places in the spirit-land, and as the evening draws on, the people, young and old, in vast numbers, betake themselves to the burial places and deck out the graves with bright paper banners and many-colored lanterns, which are lighted as the sun goes down and the darkness comes on. This decoration and illumination is made as beautiful and brilliant as possible, so that the last view of the earth taken by the departing spirits may be pleasing and happy.

Toward midnight, as the time for departure draws nigh, the male portion of the people form themselves into processions, every individual of

which bears aloft a lighted lantern suspended to a bamboo pole about ten feet long, and like so many torrents of fire pouring down the hillsides, proceed to carry to the sea the boats in which the spirits are to return to the land whence they came.

These boats are made of plaited straw and are more or less elaborate models of the ordinary native craft. Each is decorated with flags and streamers, and has a stock of provisions and money on board—the money for the ferriage of the Styx. The size of these straw boats varies from 2 to 10 or 30 feet in length, and are all provided with one or more lanterns to enable the spirit crew to steer their course.

The processions having reached the shores of the bay and the lanterns on board the straw boats having been trimmed and lighted, the fragile barks are launched upon the waters and sail away into the Western Sea, carrying the spirits to that far-off land where the sun and stars go to rest, and where is situate that glorious Nirvana where the spirits of all good Buddhists pass the time in happy oblivion.

The myriad lights of the boats scattered far and wide, dancing upon the slightly ruffled water, make a scene, viewed from a distance, of almost fairy enchantment. The cries of the people, the chanting of the priests, the sound of gongs, the music of shamisens, the naked (except the girdle cloth) bronzed figures of the people flying hither and thither in wild excitement, blended with the shadows of the night, form altogether a picture impossible to describe, and which leaves upon the memory an impression as of some wild, weird phantasmagoria.

A. C. JONES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nagasaki, Japan, June 26, 1882.

DECLINE OF THE ENGLISH SILK INDUSTRY.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

It may be interesting to our manufacturers of silk goods and to those interested in the subject of the tariff to know the present condition of the silk industry in England, especially at Macclesfield, which at one time enjoyed an exceptional reputation for its silk productions.

I hope not to trespass upon the ground of my colleagues in Great Britain, whose attention may not have been directed to this subject, in submitting the following report, for the main part of which I am indebted to the Manchester Guardian. The fact is that the silk industry in England has been losing ground for many years. Once the source of great wealth to the country, its decline has created lively discussion amongst English economists.

It appears that the industry has so seriously decreased at Macclesfield that silk weavers there can now earn scarcely more than $3.50 per week.

There are not a few persons who attribute this decay of a once flourishing industry to the exactions of the Weavers' Union, especially in regard to hours of work.

The journal above referred to, however, attributes this loss to the

progress which foreign countries have made in machinery, and the cheap price of labor in Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, where the hours of labor have not been until recently, or are not yet, subject to the restriction of state laws.

Our customs duties of 60 per cent. on silk stuffs and 35 per cent. on sewing silk have also largely contributed to destroy this branch of British manufacture.

Macclesfield has, more than any other place in the world, furnished Paterson with her silk weavers.

Silk manufactures have also made extraordinary progress in nearly every country, and especially in Russia. This progress has attracted the attention of Macclesfield manufacturers. A subscription was made and a commission was sent to the Continent to study the condition, but it appears to have had no results.

In April, 1879, the Macclesfield Chamber of Commerce convoked a general meeting of silk manufacturers and weavers, which resulted in the appointment of a commission to examine into the question of reviving the prosperity of this industry. Nothing resulted from this step.

The Guardian, speaking in the name of the manufacturers, strongly urges the adoption of a protective tariff for the silk industry and the establishment of technical schools like those existing in France and elsewhere on the Continent, which should be attached to the art school.

Coventry appears to have been no less disastrously affected. The ribbon manufactures of that place, once so important, have fallen greatly into decay. It is claimed that Coventry ought to easily rival Basle, especially where cotton is used, as the Swiss get their threads from England, but except in some special styles, this has not been the case, the Swiss surpassing the English both in weaving and dyeing.

Another reason is that the English fabricants do not follow quickly the demands of fashion as is the case with French and Swiss manufacturers; they make one article and hang on to its production, or if they finally conclude to manufacture the new, it is only when the fashion for it has passed. The English silk weaver drudges as much as the foreign, but he lacks good taste and is not prompt to seize details which form nowadays one of the essentialities in the production of original or new goods.

THE WEAVING SCHOOL OF LYONS.

Technical education, which is the strength of the French and Swiss, is almost wholly lacking with the English. While in the silk technical schools of Lyons, Crefeld, &c., there are quite a number of American pupils, not an English boy is to be found.

England must imitate American parents, who do not hesitate to make sacrifices for their sons. The *École de Commerce* of Lyons has an admirable technical school (*section de tissage*) attached to it where a theoretical knowledge of weaving can be acquired under able instructors, in ten months. Fourteen lessons, several of which are mechanical, serve to practically instruct the pupils in weaving all sorts of tissues, plain, figured, and embroidered; broad goods as well as ribbons.

From this school, within the last few years, students have graduated who are now found engaged in the reeling, throwing, and weaving of silk, and in the manufacture and commission of silk stuffs.

The school is under the patronage of the Chamber of Commerce of Lyons. The only serious drawback I see is the cost of tuition, which amounts, for the tissage section alone, to about $250 for the term of ten months. Nevertheless I have no hesitation in recommending it

to those who can afford it, but I would even more strongly recommend the creation of such a school at New York or Paterson. On this subject I shall have something to say in a future dispatch.

BENJAMIN F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, September 27, 1882.

THE TRANSVAAL GOLD DIGGINGS.

REPORT BY CONSUL SILER, OF CAPE TOWN.

Reports of recent gold discoveries in the Transvaal country have doubtless reached the United States before now, and as such reports are usually exaggerated in proportion to the distance which they travel, I have thought that some information on the subject might be useful to the Department.

That gold in considerable quantities has been discovered in the Transvaal is no longer a question; but the reports which reach here with regard to the value and extent of the find are so conflicting that their correctness pro or con should be received with considerable caution. Some who have gone to the "New Eldorado" pronounce it a humbug, and have applied to their friends for the means of returning home, while others send the most flattering accounts of the wonderful richness of the deposits. One man writes to a friend in this city that his party, consisting of ten, had averaged each from £5 to £10 daily since their arrival on the fields, and had hopes of finding the diggings richer still.

After sifting all these reports it would appear that young and inexperienced miners are generally abandoning the new fields, while the older and more experienced gold diggers are staying by their work and doing fairly well. So far none but placer or alluvial mining has been attempted, and these are being conducted in the most primitive manner, as the more modern and improved mining machinery has not yet been introduced into the country.

These new discoveries are located in the vicinity of De Kaap, in the Transvaal State, 180 miles to the northeastward from Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal Republic, and between 1,400 and 1,500 miles from this city. Delagoa Bay is the nearest seaport to the De Kaap gold fields, but owing to the country between the two places being infested with the "*tsetse*," a poisonous fly, which is death to cattle and horses, travel on this route is seldom undertaken. Port Natal is the next nearest port, and is generally considered preferable.

All food supplies at the De Kaap are enormously dear; water is scarce, the climate hot and arid, and generally unhealthy for all but the natives of the country.

I would warn people of the United States against being misled by the glowing newspaper accounts which I am aware have been disseminated with the object of encouraging foreign immigration to South Africa. I would advise all who are resolved upon trying their fortunes at the South African gold diggings to come with sufficient means with which to defray the expenses of a homeward passage in the event that their expectations might not be realized.

JAS. W. SILER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cape Town, August 23, 1882.

DECLINE OF BRITISH AGRICULTURE.

REPORT BY CONSUL TANNER, OF LIEGE.

I have the honor to submit the inclosed editorial taken from the London Times of August 1, 1882. I send it because it fortifies the position taken in my dispatch on the decline of agriculture in England.* This is an acknowledgment from the highest and most reliable English source that the elements have triumphed over the persistence and most strenuous efforts of man.

The English farmer, though compelled to yield, has shown an energy, a perseverance, a cling-to-it-a-tiveness in the face of the most discouraging reverses that have fallen to his lot through many years of consecutive failures, that is most laudable and praiseworthy. He has not thrown up the sponge until after a most desperate fight against an enemy he was all-powerless to cope with. His failure is a credit to him, because he has done everything that man could possible do to avert it. Energy has been wasted, hopes blighted, and earnest prayers sent to the Throne of Grace unanswered. There is nothing that so shows the desperate straits of a people as resorting in mass to prayers as the English farmer has done. It shows the shipwrecked condition of their agriculture better than I can on paper represent it. In Belgium special prayers have been also held in all the churches to have the rain stopped. These repeated losses of the farmer are hard to overestimate.

The effects upon every other branch of industry can be seen by the most languid observer. It is too serious to be amusing that in his trouble the English farmer has "seen visions and dreamed dreams" in the hope that the crops in every other quarter of the world *but in England* would be a failure. We cannot blame him for entertaining such a hope when it will be seen from the inclosed article that this was his only means of making up his serious losses, not of one year but of many. This would not save the English farmer or extricate him from his debts. Ten years of crop failures in America and other quarters of the world and fine crops in England during the time would not do it.

This year has been a particularly disastrous one to the farmers throughout Europe. In a dispatch sent a few days ago on the hop crop,† I touched upon the losses of the English farmer from this one source. From information since gleaned I find that my estimate of losses falls far short, and that the hop crop is an utter failure, only a pocketful to the acre being the yield. I estimate the loss from this source alone at between eighteen and twenty millions of dollars to the English farmer. It is useless for me to dwell upon the effects of such serious and repeated disasters. By a strange caprice of nature it was reserved for one of a despised nation, which ancient Rome found barbarous when she placed her yoke upon it, to chronicle the decline of her once powerful conqueror. It was an Englishman who wrote:

I've stood upon Achilles' tomb, and heard Troy doubted. Time will doubt of Rome.

It seems to be in the order of nature that everything should reach a certain stage of perfection, and then recede from it. It was first said of

* Published in Consular Reports No. 21, p. 411.
† See Consular Reports No. 22, p. 546.

Spain that "the sun never set on its possessions;" now it can be said it rarely rises upon them.

After an active restless policy, England can pause and contemplate with much pride her rich chain of possessions that gird the whole globe, and sustain her commerce, and keeps her powerful and respected by other nations. But with all this just pride she must wake to the consciousness that decay has commenced on a vital part of her being, and who can tell to whom the task will fall to one day trace with graphic pen the downfall of the great kingdom?

I cannot refrain from here offering this eloquent extract from the poet Shelley:

In the firm expectation that when London shall be a habitation of bitterns; when Saint Paul and Westminster Abbey shall stand shapeless and nameless ruins in the midst of an unpeopled marsh; when the piers of Waterloo Bridge shall become the nuclei of islets of reeds and osiers, and cast the jagged shadows of their broken arches on the solitary stream, some trans-atlantic commentator will weigh in the scales of some new and now unimagined system of criticism the respective merits of the Bells and the Fudges and their historians.

GEORGE C. TANNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liege-Verviers, August 30, 1882.

[From the London Times, Tuesday, August 1, 1882.]

At the close of July it is possible to form some estimate of the prospects of the year's harvest. We know pretty well what the harvest at its best can be. We see the point beyond which we cannot expect that it will go. How far it will fall short of this we have no means of determining. The weather in August will decide the matter, and we cannot predict what the weather in August is to be. But, under the most favorable weather conditions, the prospects for the coming crops are by no means universally good. We publish this morning a full and careful report on the present state of the crops in various parts of the country. It is hopeful in some respects, but terribly disappointing in others. The wheat harvest, our correspondent says, will be once more below the average. In many places it will be very considerably below the average. The wheat has grown well. At the beginning of June there were indications of a good yield. Then came a period of cold weather, and a long succession of wet, sunless days. The damage done has been irreparable. The stalk of the wheat has grown, but the ear has not formed. The consequence is, that the wheat fields look well from a distance, but only from a distance. On close inspection the defects in the crop become visible. The ears, as a rule, are not more than half developed. The lower part is almost entirely wanting. The grains, too, are not large and full. There are very few "laid places," for the heads of the wheat are not heavy enough to weigh down the stalk. The general report about wheat is that on good soils the straw will be good, that on poor soils it will be bad, and that on both good soils and poor soils the yield of grain will be no better than it has been during the last five years, or, in other words, that it will not nearly amount to a fair average crop. This is bad news indeed, but when we have given it we have given the worst. On no other crop is our correspondent's report quite as unfavorable as it is on wheat. The barley in some parts of the country is looking well. In Dorsetshire our correspondent has seen some fine, rich crops, bending in ripeness, and giving almost certain promise of a good malting grain. From Essex the crops are reported as good. In the midlands they are less promising. In barley, as in wheat, the straw seems likely, on the whole, to be the best part of the crop. The yield of grain will be rather less than the average; possibly it will not be equal to last year's yield. We come next to oats and beans, and to far brighter prospects as far as these are concerned. Oats, our correspondent says, will exceed in both quantity and quality the average of the last seven years. They will be good both in straw and in grain. The bean crop he describes as splendid. In corn and in straw it will be far above the average. The moist weather, which has done much to injure the wheat and barley, has been favorable to the growth of the beans. They love moisture, and they have had it, and they have thriven well with it. On the prospects of the root crops our correspondent speaks with diffidence. Mangolds, he thinks, give promise of full weight. Turnips are mostly good. In potatoes

he has observed no disease as yet, but the real time of trial has scarcely yet come. August is a dangerous month for potatoes, and even already he has heard reports that in Scotland and in Ireland, and in some parts of this country, the potato disease has begun to show itself. The hay harvest of the year is now a certainty, and it is, unhappily, a bad certainty. Never has the grass been more plentiful, and never has the weather been more unfavorable to the process of turning it into hay. Where artificial methods of drying the grass have been resorted to, or where the grass has been stacked before it was dry and has been kept cool by fanning, the hay will be all that could be wished. But there have not been many farmers who have used these new arts to make them independent of the weather. The general report is, that the hay this year is very large in amount, but that much of it is inferior in quality.

The wheat harvest this year will, our correspondent thinks, be rather late. The second or third week in August is the earliest date he fixes for it, and in the northern counties it is not likely to be as early as this. In some places it will probably stand over into September. Good it cannot be. It will be indifferent at best, and if August brings no better weather than June and July have brought, it will be very bad. It is still, unfortunately, the main crop of the year. The farmer risks more upon it than upon any other corn crop. If it fails him, the harvest is bad. If it turns out well, he has a good set-off for any loss he may suffer in his other crops. There may be some surprise felt that the English farmer should thus be persistent in his devotion to wheat. Of late years there has been some cause to doubt whether the English climate is suitable to the growth of wheat. The seasons are not what they once used to be, and if the change of seasons is to be permanent there must be a change of crops to suit the new conditions under which British agriculture is to be carried on. In point of fact, this change has begun. Wheat is still the great crop of the year, but it is far less markedly so than it was only a few years ago. Barley and oats have been encroaching on ground which used to be given up to wheat. At the present time it is only in England that the acreage under wheat is the largest. In Wales and Scotland is has never been the largest, and it has been on the decline of late in both countries, and in England too. In Great Britain the whole acreage under oats is now the largest of any. It is only in value that wheat is still the foremost of the corn crops. The agricultural returns, published by the Board of Trade, show that in 1874 there were in England 3,391,440 acres of ground under wheat, 1,889,722 under barley, and 1,356,739 under oats. In 1800 a marked change had come, and it was continued in 1881. In 1881 the acreage under wheat had fallen to 2,641,045. Barley had risen to 2,029,499, and oats to 1,627,004. If we add Wales and Scotland, the returns show 2,805,809 acres under wheat, 2,442,334 under barley, and 2,901,275 under oats. The change has fallen in well with the requirements of the present season. The crop largest in extent, though not, unfortunately, the most valuable crop, is as good as we could wish it to be. The farmer will be a loser by his wheat, but he will lose much less than if he had persisted everywhere in cultivating his ground after the model of 1874. It is a pity that beans, about which we have so extremely good a report, are a comparatively unimportant crop. The acreage under beans was a little larger in 1881 than in 1880, but it had fallen off a good deal from the returns of 1874. In that year there were in England 526,561 acres under beans. In 1881 these had sunk to 417,789. In all three countries the amount of grass land has been increasing. There were in 1874 13,178,012 acres under grass in Great Britain. In 1882 there were 14,643,397. Our farmers have been learning by experience. They have found out what crops are most likely to succeed in this country and what foreign competition is likely to be the sharpest. The verdict, it would appear, has been given against wheat and in favor of grass, but, as with every verdict, we cannot go behind the fact and pronounce for certain what has been the determining cause. The result, at any rate, has been sound. Wheat is to be the bad crop of the year in this country, while in America an unusually good wheat harvest is looked for. It is thus doubly fortunate that our acreage under wheat has been reduced.

Whatever our wheat may turn out to be, and in whatever degree it may fall short of our correspondent's gloomy estimate, our supply of food is in no danger. We draw this from so wide an area that we can always reckon with confidence upon obtaining it at demand. If the harvest is bad in one part of the world it is not bad in all parts, and we get our wheat accordingly without much regard to the seasons. The worst of the matter is, that England seems just now to be the particular part of the world to which a bad harvest is most certain to come. The price of wheat is not raised, but the farmer suffers, and the country suffers with him. We are not starved, and we are in no danger of being starved, but our home trade is crippled. The money which ought to be in the pockets of the English farmer is transferred to the American farmer. In spite of free trade a bad harvest at home is so much dead loss to the country, and this it will always be. The report of a large harvest in America will be good news to everybody else, but it will not be good news to the farmer. It will mean for him that his wheat, which will be small in amount, will command a low price, and that even the partial improvement which he has lately secured will not last beyond the near date when the American corn ships will begin to arrive and will once again flood our

markets with the golden grain from Minnesota and the far West. The case is hard, but it is not exceptional. From one cause or another our farmers seem always to be under pressure. The one thing which would certainly bring them relief would be a bountiful harvest in this country and a general failure elsewhere. But this of late has been precisely what they have not obtained. The best remaining chance for them is to do more towards adapting their methods of cultivation to the climatic conditions which they may expect. They have begun to move, and seemingly in the right direction. Cannot they quicken their pace? If English farmers are to thrive there must come a change somewhere. Either they must change or English weather must change. It is only on one or on the other condition that they can hope to escape the grave repeated losses which have gone near to ruin them.

COST OF LIVING IN GENOA.

REPORT BY CONSUL HAZELTON.

I have the honor to submit the following brief report relating to the cost of living in Genoa:

In all the large cities of Italy the cost of living is much greater, in my opinion, than is generally supposed in the United States. Respectable hotel prices range from $2 to $6 per day in Genoa. No good boarding-houses are to be had at any price.

The cost of food in Genoa is substantially as follows:

Beef, inferior parts	per pound	$0	08	to	$0 15
Beef, best	do		20	to	40
Mutton	do				18
Pork	do				25
Ham	do				44
Bacon	do				30
Veal, inferior parts	do				16
Veal, best	do				30
Fowls	each		50	to	75
Turkeys	do	1	00	to	3 00
Ducks	do		50	to	75
Fish	per pound				30
Flour	do				06
Potatoes	do				03
Eggs	per dozen				30
Butter	per pound				40
Cheese	do		20	to	40
Vegetables	do				05
Tea	do				2 00
Coffee	do				50
Sugar	do		16	to	25

Houses are seldom rented entire in Genoa. The residences are built of stone, or stone and marble, usually about six stories high, substantially finished outside and in. These are divided into flats, which are rented at various prices according to location. The flats on the second, third, and fourth floors are preferred, and one of these unfurnished apartments, with accommodations for a family of five, with two servants, can be hired for $400 to $1,000 a year; where furnished plainly, for $550 to $1,500. The wages of servants is about $5 per month.

The common laborer receives 40 cents; a mason from 40 to 60 cents; a blacksmith of even superior skill $1 per day.

Work is frequently given out at piecework, at so much per measurement, and men so employed work from dawn to sunset, only taking one-half hour for each meal and rest. A working man (single) can live for from $1.50 to $2 per week, including lodging, and very many (with families) contrive to live at about the same rate. Among these poor people,

however, mortality is very great. The cost of fuel is high. Wood costs from $12 to $15 a cord. Charcoal, which is much used for cooking purposes, $1 per 100 pounds. Petroleum 50 cents per gallon.

The cost of clothing (excepting velvets) does not vary much from the United States. The climate, however, is less severe in winter, and heavy clothing is less required on that account.

Furniture is expensive, and not as well made as in the United States. Steel and iron rust very rapidly in this climate, so that it is with great difficulty that cutlery, &c., can be kept fit for use.

J. F. HAZELTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Genoa, September 26, 1882.

SOUTHERN MOROCCO.

REPORT BY CONSUL MATHEWS, OF TANGIER.

OPENING OF THE PORTS OF AGADIR AND ASSAKA TO FOREIGN TRADE.

I have the honor to inform you that a circular has been addressed by the Moorish minister for foreign affairs to the foreign representatives at Tangier, making known to them that provisions (excepting tea and sugar) may be imported by sea at the new ports of Agadir and Assaka, in the south of Morocco, upon payment of a duty of 10 per cent., for a term of ninety days, commencing from the landing of the cargo from the first vessel arriving at these ports.

All exportation from the ports is at present strictly forbidden, and merchants are warned to sell only for ready money, and not on credit, as the Moorish Government will not accept any responsibility for debts thus incurred, and no complaints will be admitted.

It is expected that these ports will soon be permanently opened to foreign commerce.

A glance at any map of Southern Morocco will show that Agadir Bay is protected by the high lands above Cape Ghir from the northeasterly winds which sweep the rest of the coast from Cantin to Juby during nine months of the year. Although exposed to the westerly winds of the rainy season, the Bay of Agadir is the safest in the whole empire. Large vessels anchor at a quarter of a mile from the shore, and cargoes are discharged by means of lighters of the Mogador pattern, each capable of transporting 80 to 100 sacks of grain. Some half a score were lately built here for this service. The presence of low rocks near the place appointed for beaching the lighters suggest the means of erecting an inexpensive landing stage, in the absence of which much time is necessarily lost in dispatching the boats, while nothing but special care will prevent a small proportion of the cargo from coming in actual contact with sea water.

Agadir as a commercial center possesses all the advantages over that of Mogador or any other port of Western Morocco.

As a fortress, Agadir might be made a very strong place, commanding every approach by sea, and efficiently protecting any town built on the site of Old Forté, where fresh water is abundant and quite close to the shore.

HISTORY OF AGADIR.

The known history of Agadir may be summed up in very few words. Local tradition assigns it an age of from four to five hundred years. About the end of the fifteenth century it fell, in common with other portions of the coast, into the hands of Portuguese adventurers, by whom it was transferred in the year 1503, by the name of Santa Cruz, to Don Manuel, King of Portugal, who caused the town to be enlarged and fortified. It thus formed an admirable base of military operations against the disunited tribes of the interior, and in the course of the frequent and daring incursions the Portuguese not only obtained large numbers of slaves for the markets of the Portuguese Kingdom, but were actually paving the way for a general occupation of Southern Morocco, when, in 1536, the progenitor of the present Shereefian dynasty, fired with the ambition of expelling the infidels, mustered an army of 50,000 men, which, under the command of Muley Hamed El Hassan, speedily invested the fortress. An accident decided the event of the siege. A lighted match incautiously carried by one of the garrison, fell into the powder magazine, its explosion making a breach in the wall, through which the victorious crescent was carried into the town. From that time the port appears to have remained open to foreign trade until in 1773, a rebellion having broken out in the town, the displeasure and perhaps the fear of the then Sultan Cidi Mohammed were marked by his compelling all resident merchants to remove to Mogador, which dates its commercial existence from that period.

In 1792, at the instance of the Netherlands Government, the port was suddenly reopened, and in 1797 as suddenly closed; since which date the gate of the Soudan (as it was wont to be called) has been so jealously guarded from foreign intrusion that barely half a dozen Europeans by persistent and perilous endeavor have succeeded in visiting the spot which the present necessity of the Sultan has rendered for the time being accessible to all comers.

The Sultan, during his recent expedition to the south, where he has been employed in subjecting the tribes of the Soos provinces to his authority, compelled by the break down of his commissariat to secure additional supplies for the army, recently invited an English firm to land a quantity of breadstuffs on the coast of Soos, at Agadir. Several British steamers carried large quantities of grain, which were sold with great profit. Rice has been sold at Agadir at 80 per cent. net profit during the latter part of last month.

THE PORT OF ASSAKA.

As regards the port of Assaka, in the Wadnoon coast bearing the name of the river, it lies a few miles north of latitude 29°. There are said to be extensive copper mines near the village. This place is near the intermediate depot for merchandise on its way to Soudan, and for the produce of Soudan going to Mogador. Gums, wax, wools, hides, ostrich feathers, almonds, and dyes are produced in the neighborhood, and quantities of gold dust is bought and sold in the markets of Wadnoon, near Assaka. They have been trading with Mogador, but prefer selling their merchandise much less in value on the spot, not wishing to trust their persons and property within the territory under full control of the Emperor's bashaws. With Timbuctoo, however, they carry on a constant and advantageous trade. Many of the Arabs of this province are immensely rich. This province also supplies the Moors of Morocco

with convoys (*statas*) through the desert in their travels to Timbuctoo. Should the Sultan at last open these ports to trade, it is certain that a very profitable commerce might be carried on with these people, through which the immense territory of Soudan and Timbuctoo could be supplied with foreign manufactures at the second hand which they now receive at the fifth and sixth.

FELIX A. MATHEWS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tangier, September 14, 1882.

AGRICULTURE IN JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN, OF YOKOHAMA.

Agriculture is the chief industry of Japan. The people have, from their geographical position and their former policy of isolation and exclusion, been essentially tillers of the soil. Trade and manufactures lacked the stimulus of foreign commerce, and were limited and, as compared to agriculture, insignificant. The powerful feudal system, with the imperial court at Kioto and the military court of the Shogun at Tokio, with 260 daimios' courts in the provinces surrounded by more than 400,000 men at arms, and their families of nearly 2,000,000 people, and an official priesthood numbering 200,000, were all supported and maintained almost entirely by the agricultural interest of the country.

The daimios alone drew annually from this interest revenue to the value of 115,000,000 yen, and the whole burden borne by agriculture was fully 130,000,000 yen per year.

Field farming ever has been and still is unknown, but the tillage is really gardening and is of the most thorough character. Fully one-half of the population are farmers, and of the day-laboring or coolie class a large number are employed in the cultivation of the soil. The average size of these garden farms is about half an acre.

Much of the land bears its winter as well as summer crop. The thoroughness of the spade or mattock cultivation and the careful attention to fertilization produce larger returns and preserve the bearing capacity of the soil better than our superficial plowing and rough fertilization. Although the annual rainfall is greater than in the regions of the largest precipitation in the United States, irrigation is universal.

The fee simple of the soil, formerly in the feudal lord, is now held by the farmer. The area of cultivation has been extended fully one-fifth within the past ten years, and probably will increase in the future as rapidly as the means of inland transportation are improved, fertilizers secured, and the demands of commerce increase.

The Japanese Archipelago extends north and south, through 15 degrees of latitude, and the cultivated areas are at all altitudes, from the sea-level to 10,000 feet, with the climate of the temperate or sub-tropical zones. Of the 50,000,000 acres of tillable land, a little less than one-fourth, or about 12,000,000, are under cultivation. This is owing to the absence of good roads and proper means of transportation. Most of the carrying in the farming districts is done upon the backs of men and animals.

In this connection it is proper to call attention to the almost entire neglect of the grazing resources of the country.

Woolen clothing was formerly unknown, and animal food was pro-

hibited to all classes by their religion and their economical habits of life. There were only a few horses and cattle, used for military purposes, and to a limited extent for carrying. The chief source of our fertilization, the farm yard, has therefore been and still is almost entirely wanting. The night soil has been the chief fertilizer of the Japanese farmer, and the small supply has of course prevented the extension of cultivation in any large degree. The introduction into the country of farm stock and the manufacture of artificial manures will at some time be brought about, and a vast increase in production result.

Rice.—Rice is the staple product of the country, growing in all the kens and fus of the empire. About 6,800,000 acres, or more than one-half of all the area under tillage, is during the summer devoted to its cultivation. All the alluvial lands of the sea-shores, river valleys, and creek bottoms grow lowland rice, and the richer upland soils produce the upland variety. The former is the best and most productive.

The average yield of the lowlands for all the country, north as well as south, is about 40 bushels to the acre. Some of the richer and hotter districts, however, average nearly 50 bushels, and in the districts near Hiogo, Osaka, Kiota, Lata Biwa, and around the Bay of Orvari, which I lately visited, I was told by the farmers that 60 bushels was not an uncommon yield. Some fields I saw which were said to have produced 70 bushels to the acre.

Rice is the great staple food of the Japanese people, and the amount of hard, thorough work which it enables them to do is the surprise of every traveler and seems incredible to our meat-eating countrymen. The high price it has commanded here, for the past year, however, has deprived thousands of its use, and considerable anxiety is felt as to the serious consequences which may follow such a state of affairs, if prolonged. The patient and cheerful industry of the people, however, and their economical habits are guarantees against any extended and severe suffering, and hope is expressed on every side that another year may bring about a favorable change in financial affairs and witness a revival of business by which an equalization of the prices of food, labor, and clothing may again be realized. The cultivation of upland rice in the United States seems to me of sufficient importance to be made the subject of a report by itself. I shall therefore make no further reference to it here.

Wheat.—Wheat is grown in all parts of the empire, and is what is known with us as winter wheat. It is not, however, as compared with rice, an important crop. The total product in 1878 was about 38,000,000 bushels, valued at about $19,000,000, Mexican. The yield is about 20 bushels to the acre. It is mostly eaten in the form of cakes, cooked without any process of fermentation. The wheat flour is ground in a small stone mill, as old in style as the written history of the food of the world. The flour is bolted by hand in a small box, two by three feet. The grain is coarsely ground and the flour imperfectly bolted, which, perhaps, is a fault on the right side, as the starch granules are not as much broken as with us and more nitrogenous matter is allowed to pass the bolts than our best brands contain.

The uplands are preferred for wheat-growing. The soil is thoroughly dug up and pulverized with the long, wide-bladed mattock. It is then divided off into small plats, each of which is then furrowed by the same instrument into rows, three or four inches deep, and twelve or fifteen inches apart. Into these furrows ashes and a thoroughly decomposed compost is scattered, and then in October seed is dropped by hand, about 1 to 1½ bushels to the acre, and covered by the mattock to the

depth of 1 to 1½ inches. The ground is turned up two or three times per month and liquid manure is applied three or four times during the winter and spring to the roots of the plant. In the autumn some kind of hardy vegetables are planted between the rows of wheat.

The wheat ripens in May and is cut by a knife much like our old corn knives, and bound into small bundles, which are either hung up on trees or bamboo poles, or laid on hard ground to dry, when it is carried to the farm-house, where it is threshed. This threshing process consists of first pulling off all the kernels of grain and the enveloping husks by means of a row of iron teeth, long and saw-like, closely set in a stick of wood. Between these teeth a few wheat heads at a time are rapidly drawn, tearing off the kernels and their coverings. The grain is separated by threshing on mats with a flail, much like the instrument of that name formerly in use in New England. The chaff is separated by one person slowly pouring the grain from a scoop-shaped basket held four or five feet from the ground, while another person stirs the air with an enormous fan. Some of the larger landowners have a winnowing mill with sieves or screens much like our own. These were introduced during the eighteenth century by the Dutch. The wheat is then put into straw sacks and carried either on hand-carts or on the backs of horses to market. An attempt to export wheat was made some years since by a few foreign merchants, but, owing to the inferior variety, the difficulty of conveying it in bulk on account of the amount of moisture it contained, and the high prices of freight to Europe, the venture was not successful, and further efforts were abandoned.

Barley.—The product of winter barley in 1878 was about 60,000,000 bushels, valued, in the hands of the farmer, at $36,000,000, Mexican. This is a much more important food product than wheat, and is much more universally eaten. That which is made into flour is ground and bolted in the same crude way as wheaten flour, and is also cooked without fermentation. When eaten whole it is hulled by the same means as rice, and boiled and mixed with rice for the laboring class. The yield is about 25 bushels per acre. It is much in use for making saki—a kind of wine. The soils, mode of cultivation, fertilizers in use, harvesting, threshing, and marketing are the same as with wheat.

Sugar.—The sugar of Japan is made from that species of the sorghum plant known as the Chinese sorghum. It grows luxuriantly in all the southern portions of the empire south of the 36th degree of north latitude. The whole product of the empire in 1878 was 64,297,580 pounds. Importation in 1878 was 67,434,805 pounds. For three or four hundred years the processes of granulating and refining sugars have been known and practiced. Sorghum is not grown, as with us, from the seed, but from cuttings. In September selected stalks are cut and buried in trenches a foot deep. Through the winter, from each joint of the stalks sprouts grow. In the spring these joints are cut off and set out in rows 15 to 18 inches apart and about the same distance from each other in the rows. The ground has previously been thoroughly dug up, and pulverized by a long-bladed mattock. The fertilizers used are ashes, fish, decomposed hay, straw, and sea-weed, or night soil. The plants are thoroughly hoed, hilled, and irrigated. In October and November the leaves are stripped off and the stalks are then cut and the hard outer covering is removed, and the remaining portion is then ground between rollers of stone or hard wood. The cane juice is then boiled in iron kettles till the granulation takes place, when it is placed in bags and pressed dry. The expressed sirup is used as molasses. Dry upland soils are required for the successful growth of the cane, and the expenditure of

labor and fertilizers is as great if not greater than for any other crop. Great exertions are being made to promote the increased production of sugar, which will probably be in some degree successful. In fact I am informed that large orders for the apparatus for sugar-making have been received from districts which heretofore have not grown sugar-cane.

Tobacco.—Tobacco is an important product. Ninety million pounds were produced in 1878, valued at $7,500,000. It is grown on the uplands by means of the same patient, thorough tillage as the other crops described above. The seed is planted the last of March or first of April in rows 15 inches apart. In September the lower leaves are picked, the first of October the middle, and during the last of October the upper. The leaves so picked are dried and packed in small bales. The leaf is much cut up by the tobacco-worm, but as they make few cigars, the damage is not so serious. In the year ending June 30, 1880, the value of tobacco imported (principally cigars for the use of foreigners) was $60,000. The value of Japanese tobacco exported was about $217,000. That exported is taken to England and Germany and used in the manufacture of cigarettes.

Beans, pease, &c.—Beans, pease, and other leguminous plants are extensively cultivated in Japan. Perhaps there is no country in the world where this class of food plants enters into the diet of a people so largely as in Japan.

Without any scientific knowledge of the nutritive properties of food, the natural demands of the human system have led to this uncommon use of beans and pease as a complement to their other starchy food. More than forty varieties of beans and several kinds of pease and lentils are produced.

It would be an interesting and instructive economic study to ascertain how far the cereals, combined plentifully with leguminous food, have been made here to supply a cheap, healthy, and nutritious diet for a laboring population, taking in a great degree the place of animal food. From personal observation I know that an almost endless variety of these starchy caseine foods are made and eaten by these people, and that they enable the laborer to forego the more costly animal foods.

In 1878 the quantity of pease and beans was nearly 50,000,000 bushels, valued at 30,000,000 yen. These are not raised as separate but as additional crops, being grown on ground producing other food plants, between their rows or drills, making a treble crop which the soil annually produces.

The chestnut is quite important as an article of food here. It is not the nut of the large chestnut tree which grows in Europe and America, but of the shrub known in our Southern States as the chincapin. It grows over quite an area of the wild lands, and the nut is gathered, dried, ground, and eaten with rice, wheat, barley, millet, beans, or pease.

Esculent roots and tubers.—There are a great many kinds of so-called potatoes, but, with the exception of the Irish potato, grown near the open ports for foreign consumption, there is no member of the (*Solanum tuberosum*) potato family grown in Japan.

The yam or sweet potato is grown in all parts of the empire south of the fortieth parallel of latitude. There are five species of this tuber raised here, three of which are peculiar to Japan. They form a considerable part of the diet of the poor people in the autumn, in some localities.

Sweet potatoes are very cheap, selling in the large towns of the interior at not more than one-fourth of a cent per pound.

The carrot, onion, parsnip, and turnip are staple root crops, and grown

like beans and pease as an additional crop between the rows or drills of the other crops. Where turnips are grown alone enormous yields are realized. I was informed by the farmers in the vicinity of Kioto that on a rich clayey loam 25 tons of turnips per acre were often produced.

An araceous, esculent root is much grown and eaten in the country districts, and is palatable and nutritious. It is one of a numerous family of the *Arum esculentium*, which is eaten here, and is the same as grown in the Sandwich Islands, from which "poi" is made.

Lily bulbs are much grown and used as food, and are rich in sugar and starch. Several varieties are cultivated.

Herbaceous articles.—These enter largely into Japanese foods, and are therefore an important item in the agriculture of the country. They are especially valuable, as the farinaceous foods are lacking in several important salts required in the animal economy and which these herbaceous plants supply. They are grown principally as additional crops on ground with other products, and consist of cabbages, turnips, beets, kale, artichokes, onions, asparagus, spinach, mallow, sorrel, rhubarb, laver or sea-weed, mustard, lettuce, endive, water and garden cress, parsnips, and a great variety of other plants. The value of this class of food plants was, in 1878, estimated at 25,000,000 yen. What is especially noticeable in this connection is that these crops are grown mostly on land that raises two other crops in a year, a summer one of rice and a winter one of some other cereal.

Tea.—The cultivation of tea, it is almost needless to say, is one of the most important branches of Japanese agriculture. Although the area and value of its product may not be as great as that of rice and barley, still, as an article of commerce, it is more important. The amount exported has increased from less than 5,000,000 pounds in 1869, to an estimated export of 40,000,000 pounds in 1880. The total product for 1880 is estimated at 90,000,000 pounds. The whole population of the country drink tea. It is the national beverage from infancy to old age. It grows in all the kens or provinces of the empire, but its favorable locality is south of the fortieth parallel of latitude.

So much has been written and published of tea culture that I shall only briefly speak of the methods adopted for its production in Japan.

The soils most sought after for its growth are the sheltered hillsides, although it flourishes on the plains along the sea-shore. If wild lands are to be used, the soil must be thoroughly tilled and subdued. It is grown in rows from 6 to 10 feet apart, and 4 to 6 feet between the plants in the rows. A thrifty tea shrub is from 3 to 5 feet high. The plants require constant care in all seasons. They must be carefully pruned and trimmed, and the soil must be constantly fertilized. The third year the plants begin to yield some return, and the fifth season the yield is quite good. I have been informed by the tea farmers that 2,500 pounds of tea leaves to the acre is a fair yield, and that more than 3,000 pounds are often produced. I should state that this is the weight when prepared by the Japanese, and that there is a shrinkage of about one-thirtieth by the foreign mode of firing. There are large areas where the soil and climate are well adapted to the growth of tea, and as there is an abundance of skilled, cheap labor available, there is no immediate limit to the increase of this important product except in its foreign demand.

There is a determined effort upon the part of the government and the tea growers to produce black teas. A large number of Chinese experts have been employed and sent into the tea districts. The result is that a good article can be produced at prices that place Japan among the competitors for the black-tea markets of Europe.

TEXTILE FIBERS.

Silk.—The mulberry tree is grown in nearly all parts of the islands south of Yesso, principally between the thirty-fifth and fortieth parallels of north latitude. This is contrary to the popular belief that its home is in more southerly climes. The map showing that its growth in Japan is in the central provinces of Iwate, Miyagi, Yamagata, Fukushima, Gunba, Tochigi, Chiba, Iberaki, Kanagawa, Nagano, Yamanashi, Shidzuoka, Gifu, Ishikawa, Shiga, and Kioto Fu, which I attached to my labor report, was a surprise to me when I came to prepare it, and I think will prove so to many others. The foreign demand has stimulated the production of silk so much in the last ten years as to have nearly doubled the amount. Large districts of wild lands have been subdued and devoted to the mulberry tree within a few years. The table lands of the middle and northern portions of the main island have been largely taken up for this purpose, and the area will be farther widened according to demand.

The variety of the mulberry most in use is the *Morus nigra.* It grows from 5 to 10 feet in height. The rows are from 10 to 12 feet apart and the trees are about the same distance from each other. A plantation gives a small yield of leaves the third year and increases gradually to the eighth or ninth year, when, if on good soil, and with good care, the tree is fully matured.

There are two methods of gathering the leaves in use in different localities. One is to partially strip the leaves from the branches and carry them to the place of feeding; another, to cut the branches and carry them in bundles on horses or backs of men. In the latter case the young shoots grow with remarkable rapidity, and are large enough to give the usual amount of leaves the following year. Light upland soils are used entirely for mulberry plantations. Crops of both summer and winter plants are grown between the rows of trees, and the soil is carefully cultivated and fertilized. For the latter purpose, closet and fish manures, composts of straw, grass, and ashes, lime, rape-seed cake, and sea-weed are used. The presence of the trees seems to make no difference in the yield of the other crops, the principal requirement being a larger amount of fertilizers.

Hemp is grown on the lower and richer soils in drills, 16 inches apart. It is sown in March or April, and receives the same careful garden tillage as all other products of the soil in Japan. The soil is carefully prepared by the small Chinese plow, or the long-bladed mattock, and well manured in the drills where the seed is sown. During the summer it is frequently hoed and fertilizers are applied to the root of the plant. All hemp lands are flooded three or four times in the season from the irrigating ditches. The stalk, usually ready for harvest in August, grows from 4 to 7 feet high, and is pulled and spread on the ground, where it rots and the fiber is easily separated. This is done by beating with a bamboo stick. The resinous substance is removed by hand-scraping with a sharp-edged bamboo knife. The fiber is of an uncommon length, strength and glossiness. If it could be completely cleaned of the resinous matter it would be in demand in foreign markets, but until that can be accomplished it will not become a very important article of agriculture.

Flax is not grown in the country.

THOROUGHNESS OF CULTIVATION.

I have taken occasion to suggest in previous papers that the introduction of foreign improved farming tools and machinery and the adoption of foreign methods of cultivation would prove of value to Japan, and I remain of the same opinion. Of course nothing of the kind can be profitably done until a supply of fertilizers is secured, but with these a large amount of additional land can be cultivated and the taxable wealth of the country greatly increased.

I cannot, however, render too warm a tribute to the thoroughness of the present tillage by the Japanese farmers, the value of which is proved by its immense results. The divisions of land, as at present cultivated, are so small that anything but this garden cultivation would be impossible, but in view of the yields that are realized might it not be worth the while of some of our farmers at home to experiment in the same direction? When the mattock (a pick with a broad edge) is alone used the whole surface is dug up and turned over to the depth of 8 or 10 inches, and then the whole soil is pulverized and raked over until not a lump of earth is left. When the little old Chinese plow is used, the soil is plowed and replowed from four to eight times. I saw a farmer near Kioto, with his one cow plowing ground for winter wheat the eighth time. The soil was thus thoroughly comminuted; composts were then to be worked in, and the growing crop afterwards to get from three to ten applications of liquid fertilizers at the root of the plants during the season. The land near Kioto, to which I have referred, has been under cultivation for two thousand years or over, growing, a portion if not all the time, two crops a year; and yet with this liberal treatment of manures and thorough tillage the yield seems almost fabulous. On one acre, which I saw, the farmer informed me that he had grown this season 70 bushels of rice with 3½ tons of straw, and he was then preparing for a winter crop of equally large proportions. Such facts bear their own comments on their face, and are worthy the consideration of cultivators everywhere.

THOS. B. VAN BUREN,
UNITED STATES CONSULATE GENERAL, *Consul-General.*
Yokohama, Japan.

PRODUCTS AND COMMERCE OF BRAZIL.

REPORT, BY CONSULAR AGENT COMSETT, ON THE PRODUCTS AND COMMERCE OF THE PROVINCE OF SANTA CATHARINA, BRAZIL.

MANUFACTURES.

Rum is distilled from cane in small quantities, and by means of very simple apparatus, along the coast. Beyond the ordinary rice, sugar, and saw mills of very primitive styles, also two sugar refineries in this capital, manufactures can be said not to exist in the province.

The German colony of San Francisco, to the north of this port, claims as an exception to the above; but from the best information I could obtain, aside from their mills, a wagon, cabinet, saddle, harness, and cigar maker, together with wheelwright and blacksmith, would embrace the whole. The principal products are coffee, sugar, molasses, rice, tobacco, mandioca flour, rum, tapioca, and herva mate (Paraguay tea). There are

no statistics, however, only so far as the exports will give. The principal part, however, is used for home consumption.

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture is carried on in a very primitive manner, the use of modern implements being entirely neglected. All agriculture is performed with the hoe, and in many cases even this tool is dispensed with; a stick for making holes in the ground for the seed is substituted. Nor are regular fields for cultivation used; they fell the timber of the forest, burn the trunks and undergrowth, and plant for one or, at most, two years, and then abandon the place for a new one; generally they select steep hill-sides, and it is rare to see the river bottoms under cultivation, except in some patches amongst the colonists. Coffee is an exception to this rule, however.

MINES.

Mines, of various precious metals, are said to exist in this province; but there are none worked or explored, aside from a gold mine at the north, by an American gentleman, and a coal mine at the southard.

An English company are now constructing a line of rails from Tubarão mine, to Imbituba on the coast, a distance of some one hundred miles, more or less; the future will verify which of the many reports on the subject of this mine are true. Some specimens of the coal said to have been taken from this mine have been upon exhibition in this city, and have given general satisfaction.

FISHERIES

Only exist in a small way for home consumption; but little exported. Fish forms the principal article of diet for the poorer classes. Nothing like a fishing company, or exportation of salt fish in large quantities, has ever been attempted, though the material exists in sufficient quantity.

Some few years ago a company was organized to supply Rio de Janeiro market with fish from the waters of this province; suitable boats with wells were provided to transport them alive, but from some cause the company failed before they could test the feasibility of the problem.

PRODUCTS OF THE FORESTS.

This province is profusely rich in timber trees, both in quality and quantity, and large exportations are regularly made from the northern parts of the province.

REVENUE.

Beside custom-house duties there is a tax of 6 per cent. on the sale of real estate; no other tax is imposed except municipal duties.

Stamp duties are levied on all commercial papers, documents, contracts, petitions, &c.

Professions, trades, commercial houses, &c., pay licenses to the provincial authorities.

M. W. COMSETT,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Desterro, Santa Catharina, April 1, 1882.

Statement showing the imports at Desterro, Santa Catharina, Brazil, for the year ending June 30, 1881.

	Merchandise per class, and tariff.	Whence.								
		Estado Oriental.	United States.	France.	Hamburg.	England.	Portugal.	Parts of the empire.	Official value.	Duties.
1	Animals, alive and dissected				$13 10			$52 42	$65 52	$13 75
2	Hair, furs, and feathers				421 93	$198 01			619 94	253 04
3	Hides and skins			$159 43	437 29	295 46			892 18	368 76
4	Meats, fish, and oily substances	$958 77		147 42	1,162 52	902 40			3,171 11	887 81
5	Ivory and pearl	225 67		105 19	8 37	24 57			363 80	163 72
6	Fruits, fresh and dried	165 40			343 05	337 99	$99 03		945 47	425 47
7	Vegetables, grains, and wheat	457 18	$21,720 60		3,424 38	542 50			26,144 66	4,109 70
8	Plants and flowers	503 44		11 64	1,512 06	583 24	133 33		2,743 71	1,057 20
9	Vegetable extracts, liquors, alcoholic	691 23	79 44	82 35	4,512 32	829 92	4,705 60		10,900 86	4,655 81
10	Perfumery and drugs	12,432 39	940 21	1,258 53	606 65	3,751 72			18,989 50	7,519 16
11	Drugs and chemicals	1,468 21		519 24	2,514 51	2,486 64			6,988 60	1,432 78
12	Lumber	564 69	519 24	16 00	306 85	126 31			1,533 09	657 96
13	India cane, bamboo, &c				105 55				105 55	47 50
14	Straw and straw goods		152 88		679 32	16 38			848 58	381 87
15	Cottons and manufactures of	1,159 15	1,343 70	8,443 93	10,200 37	70,065 91			91,213 06	42,374 11
16	Wool and manufactures of			2,295 81	7,182 67	19,353 00			28,831 48	12,964 25
17	Flax and manufactures of	231 13		43 68	2,268 49	5,342 15			7,885 45	3,548 37
18	Silk and manufactures of	268 99		3,088 45	1,503 02	1,424 73			6,285 19	2,912 66
19	Paper and manufactures of			374 91	1,198 26	1,189 61			2,762 78	1,006 49
20	Stone, lime, cement, porcelain	647 01	69 34	80 55	3,555 55	36,442 51			40,794 96	966 08
21	Crockery and glassware	18 01		3 56	4,614 74	7,981 55			12,617 86	5,779 15
22	Gold, silver, and platina			163 80					163 80	12 28
23	Copper and manufactures of		2 18	374 15	567 82	917 37			1,861 52	837 68
24	Lead, solder, zinc	6 49		1 36	1,006 91	500 20			1,514 96	554 58
25	Iron and steel, manufactures of	98 16	578 56	140 28	11,613 58	6,832 79			19,263 37	7,225 82
27	Brimstone, sulphur, &c				6 27	94 18			100 45	15 06
28	Fire-arms and ammunition		9 10	323 95	1,988 96				2,322 01	1,044 90
29	Cutlery				1,010 10	310 67			1,320 77	594 04
30	Clocks			3 62	16 38				20 00	8 73
31	Carriages and wagons, &c		441 16						441 16	198 52
32	Mathematical instruments			191 64	23 47	285 01			500 12	86 97
33	Dentists' instruments					26 20			26 20	3 92
34	Musical instruments			292 11	153 42	218 40			663 93	298 66
35	Mechanical tools		326 05		1,956 49	2,155 30			4,437 84	1,472 15
36	Sundry articles of this class not otherwise specified	2 36	4 79	1,452 14	7,618 17	571 62			9,649 08	4,341 79
	Total	19,898 28	26,187 25	19,573 74	72,532 57	163,806 34	4,967 96	52 42	306,988 56	108,220 74

Exports from Desterro, Santa Catharina, Brazil, during the years 1880–'81.

Products.	Quantity.	Official value.	Per cent.	Duties of exportation.	Destination.
Hair of animals ..... pounds..	2,026	$203 11	9	$18 27	Hamburg.
Hides ..... do....	155,747	37,146 13	9	3,343 15	England.
Do ..... do....	37,581	5,274 36	9	474 68	Hamburg.
Horse-hair ..... do....	1,723	187 84	9	17 00	Do.
Coffee ..... do....	24,836	2,619 30	9	235 73	Oriental States.
Do ..... do....	96,732	11,232 58	9	1,010 93	Hamburg.
Mandioca flour ..... do....	5,067,338	67,443 58	5	3,372 17	Oriental States.
Do ..... do....	1,257,978	12,610 67	5	630 53	Argentine Republic.
Beans ..... do....	6,019	60 34	5	3 01	Oriental States.
Tobacco ..... do....	4,303	538 25	9	48 44	Hamburg.
Starch ..... do....	2,677	93 56	5	4 67	Oriental States.
Herva mate, or Paraguaytea ... do....	46	1 65	5	08	Hamburg.
Sausages ..... do....	54	8 75	5	43	Oriental States.
Molasses ..... do....	92,213	1,525 23	5	76 26	Do.
Lumber ..... tons..	900	315 14	9	28 36	Do.
Parasites (orchids) ..... pounds..	3,050	43 68	5	2 18	Hamburg.
Do ..... do....	784	13 10	5	65	Belgium.
Do ..... do....	653	10 80	5	54	England.
Tapioca ..... do....	23,834	652 85	5	32 64	Hamburg.
Total	6,778,496	139,980 92	.....	9,299 72	

Recapitulation of exports dispatched from the provincial consulate during the financial year of 1880–'81.

Products.	Within the empire.	Foreign ports.	Total.
Ground-nuts ..... pounds..	242,978	15,368	258,346
Rice ..... do ..	3,430,690	13,303	3,433,993
Sugar ..... do....	223,203	.....	223,203
Lard ..... do....	14,070	619	14,689
Potatoes ..... do....	12,950	.....	12,950
Coffee ..... do....	34,590	216,940	251,530
Bees'-wax ..... do....	1,710	.....	1,710
Horse-hair ..... do....	4,436	5,928	10,364
Arrowroot ..... do....	73,401	13,300	86,701
Rye meal ..... do....	26,277	436	26,713
Mandioca flour ..... do....	6,098,891	16,283,070	22,381,965
Corn meal ..... do....	13,239	.....	13,239
Tapioca ..... do...	115,447	38,586	154,033
Fava beans ..... do....	154,395	6,019	160,378
Black beans ..... do....	3,043,235	.....	3,043,235
Tobacco:			
In cord ..... do....	5,036	.....	5,036
In leaf ..... do....	893	6,754	7,647
Ginger root ..... do....	5,083	.....	5,083
Starch ..... do....	266,135	1,222	267,357
Gravatas (hemp) ..... do....	784	.....	784
Herva matte ..... do....	24,113	3,414,006	3,438,119
Sausages ..... do....	483	105	588
Butter ..... do....	40,043	.....	40,043
Molasses ..... gallons..	27,955	18,442	46,397
Corn ..... bushels..	145	.....	145
Bones ..... pounds..	8,712	.....	8,712
Fish, preserved ..... do....	1,928	.....	1,928
Sole leather ..... do....	113,697	505	114,202
Pork ..... do....	27,292	.....	27,292
Rum ..... gallons..	246,360	.....	246,360
Orange wine ..... do....	5,839	.....	5,839
Slippers ..... pairs..	418	.....	418
Shoes, wood-soles ..... do....	3,072	.....	3,072
Garlic ..... strings..	34,900	.....	34,900
Bananas ..... bunches..	9,224	47,448	56,672
Lime (shell) ..... bushels..	12,924,540	.....	12,924,540
Barrels ..... number..	28	.....	28
Canoes ..... do....	29	.....	29
Cigarettes ..... do....	36,000	.....	36,000
Cigars ..... do....	1,008,795	.....	1,008,795
Horns ..... do....	26,149	.....	26,149
Ox hides ..... do....	2,249	20,960	23,209
Tiger skins ..... do....	.....	24	24
Eggs ..... do....	96,960	.....	96,960
Fish, dried ..... do....	20,960	.....	20,960

Recapitulation of exports dispatched from the provincial consulate, &c.—Continued.

Products.		Within the empire.	Foreign ports.	Total.
Horn roots	do	1,000		1,000
Parts of saddle	do	160		160
Tiles	do	32,000		32,000
Brick	do	16,000		16,000
Cowhides, tanned	do	953		953
Brooms	do	960		960
Lumber:				
Fire wood	pieces	217,550	38,000	255,550
Hewn timber	do	173,032	1,152	174,184
Sawed timber	do	8,823	526	9,349
Planks	do	4,575	700	5,275
Lathe or batten	do	36,668	5,600	42,268
Lathe or batten boards	do	1,138		1,138
Boards	do	8,220	8,808	17,028
Poles	number	30	90	120

		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Brazilian	Rio de Janeiro	(a)	29,106					(a)	29,106				
	do	(b)	25,677					(b)	25,677				
	Montevideo	(a)	29,106					(a)	29,106				
	do	(b)	25,677				109,566	(b)	25,677				109,566
British	New York	(c)	1,317			1	1,317	(c)	1,317			1	1,317
	Cardiff			11	3,457					11	3,457		
	Middlebourgh			4	1,375					2	918	(d)	
	Sunderland			1	720					1	720		
	Rotterdam			1	183					1	183		
	Cadiz			1	193					1	193		
	Glasgow			1	152					1	152		
	Newport			1	152					1	152		
	London			2	430					2	430		
	Antwerp			1	253	23	6,915			1	253	21	6,458
American	Richmond			3	638					3	638		
	Whaling			1	273	4	911			1	273	4	911
Brazilian	All ports of the Empire			25	2,720					25	2,720		
	Buenos Ayres			1	228	26	2,948			1	228	26	2,948
Spanish	Montevideo			1	117					1	187		
	Rio de Janeiro			4	673					4	673		
	Pernambuco			2	194	7	984			2	194	7	984
Italian	Buenos Ayres			2	508	2	508			2	508	2	508
Danish	do			1	268	1	268			1	268	1	268
Holland	Antwerp			1	194	1	194			1	194	1	194
Norwegian	Liverpool			1	252					1	252	1	252
	Cardiff			1	534	2	786			(e)			
German	Pehenburg			1	191	1	191			1	191	1	191
Portuguese	Maceio			1	244	1	244			1	244	1	244
Argentine	Santos			1	170	1	170			1	170	1	170

a Three English steamers, under the Brazilian flag, making monthly voyages from Rio de Janeiro to Montevideo and return, touching at intermediate ports.

b Three Brazilian steamers, making the same trips as above, having just succeeded in securing the mail contract heretofore held by the English.

c The first of a line of English steamers from New York to Rio de Janeiro and southern ports of Brazil (said to be monthly).

d 1st. Wrecked at terminus of railroad to coal mines, just south of this port, shortly after arrival. Cargo (of railroad materials) with vessel sold at auction. After saving a part of cargo, the balance, together with the vessel, became a total loss.

2d. Wrecked at same port as above (cargo same railroad materials). Complete cargo and vessel sold at auction, the purchasers saving every ounce of cargo, together with vessel, which has been brought and beached in this port for repairs.

e Wrecked at terminus of railroad; *cargo saved* (of railroad material); now trying to save vessel.

Ten of the vessels arriving from England have brought railroad material for the road being built to the coal mines by an English company. The balance are coal vessels.

TRADE AND INDUSTRIES OF MAYENCE.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT SMITH.

The commercial and industrial situation of the German Empire during the year 1881 is not easy to describe, for the country is undergoing the experiment of a protective tariff, and the views of the mercantile and manufacturing classes differ considerably regarding the advisability of the changes which are being wrought. The sentiment of the country at large, however, seems to be in favor of the new system, and the advantages realized are claimed to outweigh the disadvantages, although the tariff is considered faulty in many particulars. But it is as yet too soon to assert what results may accrue. It can be said, however, that neither the sanguine expectations of the advocates of the reform measures which have been adopted since 1879 nor the fears of their opponents have been realized. Some industries have undoubtedly been benefited, while others have been injuriously affected.

The present is, economically, an unsatisfactory and transition period with Germany, and with the future rests the solution of the problems which now engage and perplex the political economists of the land. The year 1881 can, therefore, hardly be designated a stable one, and as the measures adopted, to which I have adverted, certainly require modification and revision, commercial and industrial pursuits are continually disturbed. Wages remained unchanged, the rate of interest suffered during the year no further fall, and first-class securities commanded readily 4 per cent. The crops of the year, especially the potato and fruit crops, were, on the whole, satisfactory, and the purchasing power of the people was thereby augmented; but the wine harvest was not at all gratifying.

Much interest is being manifested in Germany in the export trade of the Empire, and the question of increasing its volume is receiving much attention from the press and government. The desire to establish colonies and foster relations between them and the mother country is apparently a very fascinating problem, but nobody seems to know where or how to start. The English-speaking peoples have almost monopolized the globe, and the German is awakening to the fact that he has neither sea-coast nor colonies, and is therefore destitute of two great factors necessary to a great and enduring empire. Germany desires not only to be the arbiter of Europe, but also to take a commanding place among the maritime nations of the world, and will never be content until she has obtained a sea-coast somewhere. To gain a sea-coast, found colonies, and thus conserve the immense stream of emigration which yearly seeks the shores of America, and build up a commercial and maritime supremacy akin to that which England now enjoys, is the desire of every thoughtful German.

In grain the year 1881 promised an average harvest of excellent quality, but not by far so satisfactory a yield as that of the previous year. It was therefore feared that large importations would be made from America and Russia. Consequently, the new crop of grain, when

placed upon the market, found purchasers at only low prices, and many mills sold flour at low figures, to be delivered upon long time. This tendency materially affected and almost completely prostrated trade. Soon, however, it was realized that a mistaken view had been taken of the situation, and inland wheat, which had been selling at about 22½ to 23 marks (a mark being = to 23.8 cents) per 100 kilograms, quickly rose to 25 marks, and rye, which had fallen below 20, rallied to 21 and 22 marks, which figures were maintained to the end of the year. Poor harvests and speculative combinations in the United States interfered with importations therefrom, and rye, which must be imported into the valley of the Rhine from some foreign source, was obtained almost exclusively from France.

The home market seems to have been able to meet the demand for wheat. In general the grain trade was not so remunerative as in 1880, but nevertheless rather satisfactory. The tariff upon exportations seriously prejudiced the flour industry. Many large establishments which in previous years busied themselves with the export trade, now that that had been destroyed, are endeavoring to build up a business in the Empire, and with that object in view, to their own damage and to the ruin of smaller concerns, offer their products at almost any figure. The tariff is in this particular working a manifest injury. The unusually abundant potato crop had a marked effect upon the grain trade, potatoes in a large measure supplying the place of flour.

Fodder commanded a ready market throughout the year, high prices even being granted, which were maintained, with slight weakening toward the end of the year. This was due to the dry spring and early summer, causing a diminished product, far below that of an average crop. The quality was good. The crop of clover-seed was very inferior, and forced a dependence upon foreign markets.

The situation of the farming classes, especially of the multitude of smaller proprietors, is continually unsatisfactory. On the one hand are the small, heavily mortgaged holdings, which maintain the owner forever immersed in debt, while, on the other, wages and the necessaries of life are higher than formerly, with no corresponding increase in incomes.

To offset the high prices realized for grain during the past two years, were poor crops of fodder harvested; and on account of the failure in hay and straw, many farmers were compelled to reduce the number of their live stock at unfavorable prices.

The following are the highest and lowest prices at Mayence, per 100 kilograms, during the year, of grain, hay, straw, potatoes, pease, and beans, in United States currency:

	Highest.	Lowest.
Wheat	$6 00	$5 63
Barley	4 64	4 45
Hay	2 08	1 87
Potatoes	1 61	1 19
Beans	7 47	4 96
Rye	5 28	5 04
Oats	4 01	3 80
Straw	1 98	1 84
Pease	8 44	5 02

During the same period meat and provisions were quoted at the following figures, per half kilogram, or little more than one pound English, viz:

	Highest.	Lowest.
	Cents.	*Cents.*
Beef	15.9	15.7
Mutton	11.6	11.4
Rye flour	5.2	4.2
Butter	26.8	22.1
Veal	22.8	11.9
Flour	5.7	5.3
Rye bread	3.5	3.5
Eggs, Per 10	13	10

The long-continued dryness which prevailed throughout the spring into the middle of the summer (1881) inflicted much damage upon vegetable and flower gardens.

In the vicinity of Weisbaden much attention is given to the culture of fruit and the production of vegetables, and quite a thriving business is done in the neighboring places. But the year, notwithstanding its prejudicial influence upon garden stuff, was very favorable to all sorts of fruits. Peaches and apricots were of particular fineness, and all other kinds gave in quality and quantity a gratifying yield. Prices, however, were rather high. Fruit here, however, is not to be compared in quality with that in the United States. A peach or apple which a German would pronounce very fine would in America be considered of rather inferior quality. Melons are decidedly poor, the summers being too moist and cool for their production. The best success is met with in the cultivation of cherries, strawberries, currants, plums, apricots, and the like, which are well adapted to the soil and climate. The severe winter of 1879–'80 destroyed over half a million of fruit trees in the neighborhood of Weisbaden, and during 1881 many trees died from the effects of injury then received.

The wine yield amounted to hardly half a harvest, of medium quality. The spring promised a brilliant prospect, but the anticipations formed were blighted by cold and rainy weather in the latter part of the summer. The wine-trade was rather quiet, and in Germany and England bad. To the United States the export of wine has decreased, amounting in 1881 to $394,291.60, against $439,437.30 in 1880. Hitherto, with one or two slight exceptions, the valley of the Rhine has been exempt from the depredations of phylloxera, but last year the pest appeared where it had never before been observed, and the German vine-growers are alarmed. At one place in the valley of the Aar, at the close of the summer, phylloxera were found extended over an area of six acres. The most energetic measures are necessary to stay this appearance, but it is feared with small chance of eventual success.

In coffee, trade was unfavorable. In tea, business in the finer kinds was active, and high prices were obtained; but large importations of the lower grades were placed upon the market and sold at cheap prices. Trade was sluggish in rice; the year opened with quotations at 15 marks per 50 kilograms, and closed with prices at 14 marks. Large quantities of rice are received from the East Indies, at very low prices. Sugar was flat at the beginning of the year, and continued so until April, when a rise occurred, so that in May the refined article had advanced 4½ marks per 50 kilograms; but from July to December there was a continual downward tendency. In January the price was 43 to 44 marks per 50 kilograms. Lard was high, on account of a falling off in hogs in the United States, but business was active. The highest

figure was reached in July, when the price was double that of 1879. Since then but slight shrinkages have taken place.

The tobacco industry is in a very demoralized condition. The increased tariff upon tobacco, the tax upon the inland product, and the monopoly agitation have all conspired to seriously damage the trade. During the monopoly discussions and debates all enterprise was paralyzed; the small manufacturers and the large operators significantly reduced their establishments; purchases of raw tobacco largely declined, and the business was in all respects materially crippled. Large numbers of workmen were thus thrown out of work, and, not being able to obtain employment in other occupations, emigrated largely to the United States.

Petroleum has not been affected by the discoveries of oil at Luneburg, the product being too slight to influence the market.

The leather trade was strong, but the prices not so profitable as formerly. The business in sole leather in especial was moderate, and the prices low. Raw South American as well as native hides maintained a firm figure, owing to the demand in the United States. The leather dealers complained of the very erroneous interpretation of the tariff with respect to leather, and charges were made that at the various customs offices conflicting appraisements were formed regarding sole and over leather, thus permitting large quantities of many kinds of leather which should have paid a duty of 36 marks per 100 kilograms to be admitted at 18 marks. Among the leathers thus admitted and objected to by the trade may be mentioned Australian sole leather and American hemlock leather. In order to appease this clamor, a duty of 36 marks was imposed upon sole leather of every description.

In combed wools a large number of spindles were employed, but the increased production lowered prices. Previous to 1879 there were 600,000 spindles in operation in Germany, but that number has been increased by 100,000. In October, 1881, prices were 7 per cent. lower than in 1879, although they recovered 2 per cent. later on. During the first half of the year an overproduction was feared, but this apprehension, however, proved to be unfounded. The raw product, unfortunately for spindles, was higher in proportion than the spun stuff. No change occurred with reference to laborers.

The manufacture of textile fabrics during 1881 was beset with many difficulties. During the first five months of the year the prices of raw material were very low. From the end of May on there were rising prices, caused by speculators buying up the greater portion of the disposable American product of cotton at Liverpool, and because prices thus became unstable, manufacturers were affected; but a corresponding increase in the price of manufactured goods was not manifested. Spinners, therefore, who were not well provided with the raw article, found themselves at the mercy of speculators. It was said, however, that the German spinners suffered less from this movement than the English spinners; for these latter were not as well supplied with the raw material, and had therefore to suspend operations for some weeks. At the end of September this combination ceased, and in October and November a reaction took place, which, however, was not of long duration, for reports began to be circulated of a poor crop, and consequently prices rallied. Cotton spinners during the year were not able to realize a satisfactory profit upon their goods. There are no woolen and cotton manufacturers in this immediate consular district, although there are quite a number in the neighborhood.

The trade in metals was very good, and showed a decided improve-

ment. In 1880 the statistics for mines, salt-works, and furnaces in the Grand Duchy of Hesse Darmstadt were as follows:

In 1880 there were twenty-nine mines in operation in the Grand Duchy of Hesse Darmstadt; nine of these were peat-works, eighteen iron-ore works, and two brown-stone quarries. The entire marketable product of the peat works amounted to 41,889 tons,* valued at $73,145; at the iron-works were produced 123,295,050 tons, valued at $179,914.67; and the brown-stone quarries yielded 161,150 tons.

There were four salt-works, which gave 16,059,632 tons of salt, valued at $116,058.32.

There were ten iron foundries, smelting 803,147 tons, the value of which was $230,753.37.

In chemicals the exports suffered considerably from the effect of the new French customs duties. In 1880 the export of chemicals and aniline colors from this district to the United States amounted to $123,275.40, against $130,433.42 in 1881.

The chief articles of export from this district to the United States are wine, agate wares, leather, and chemicals, as follows:

	In 1880.	In 1881.
Wine	$429,487 31	$394,291 60
Agate wares	386,351 67	452,939 55
Leather	164,665 81	275,292 45
Chemicals	123,275 40	130,433 42

The description and amounts of goods imported into and exported from the harbor of Mayence during the year 1881 were as follows:

	Arrived.	Departed.
	Centners.	*Centners.*
Bristles, hair, horns, &c	2,447	2,793
Asphalt, resin, pitch, tar	1,924	13,757
Cotton and cotton goods	28,337	806
Coals, coke, peat, and charcoal	554,028	.....
Drugs, chemicals, and colors	164,192	50,821
Printed books, maps, and steel engravings	76	270
Manure	925	720
Iron and steel ware	46,947	17,077
Ore and minerals	3,094	890
Casks, cases, and bags	7,463	47,554
Grains, hops, fruits, potatoes, straw, hay	174,494	122,797
Oils, tallow	111,018	30,053
Flax, hemp, oakum, &c	4,609	484
Tools, furniture, and musical instruments	11,408	11,205
Glass and glassware	274	164
Hides, leather, furs, and feathers	8,363	3,385
Woodenware	117	2,228
Wood for fuel and furniture	108,687	1,280
Wood for constructions	22,864	.....
Metallurgy	5,534	1,178
Groceries, mineral water, wine, tobacco, flour	281,396	123,814
Linen goods	9,787	844
Machinery	1,578	1,951
Metalware (except iron)	39,735	3,379
Oil-cake	212	25
Paper	2,398	6,238
Porcelain and chinaware	76	1,855
Silk and silk goods	54	29
Building stones, cement, lime, &c	618,517	10,670
Earthen and stone ware	637	881
Woolen goods	1,038	526
Sundries	41,036	56,181

JAS. HENRY SMITH,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Mayence, August 28, 1882.

* One German ton is equal to 1,000 kilograms.

THE BIRMINGHAM ASSAY OFFICE.

REPORT BY CONSUL KING, OF BIRMINGHAM.

The recent issue of the annual report of the Birmingham assay office has attracted my attention to that important institution, especially important here where the jewelry trade is so large, and, thanks to the courtesy of the chairman of the guardians, I have been able to collect some facts and figures which I trust may prove of interest.

In this country various acts of Parliament have made it illegal to sell any articles of either gold or silver plate, watch-cases, chains, or wedding or mourning rings, unless stamped with official marks attesting their genuineness. Small articles of jewelry are alone exempt from these laws.

Formerly, I believe, all such "hall-marking," as it is called, was done by the Goldsmiths' Company in London; but the work, no doubt, grew to be too large for that company, and the establishment of assay offices was authorized at Birmingham, Chester, Exeter, and Newcastle, and, for silver only, at Sheffield; and at Dublin, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, in the sister kingdoms.

It is of the work of the Birmingham assay office, established by act of Parliament in 1773, that I purpose writing. This establishment is controlled by a body of gentlemen known officially as the guardians of the standard of wrought plate in Birmingham. They are thirty-six in number, of whom not more than nine or less than six must be engaged in the trade of gold or silver smiths. The remainder are selected from among the leading men of the neighborhood, and the board at present includes a number of members of both houses of Parliament and prominent merchants, manufacturers, and bankers. Originally appointed by act of Parliament, the guardians themselves elect new members to fill all vacancies. From this body not less than four or more than six gentlemen are appointed each year to act as wardens, whose duty it is to superintend the work of the office, two wardens being present every day. The work is done by or under the direction of an assay master and an assistant assay master, practical chemist, appointed by the guardians for life or good behavior. These, as well as all persons employed about or having access to the premises, are bound by oath not to reveal any of the business secrets of the office, and any one breaking this oath is liable to unusually severe penalties.

The assay office is open five days a week, from nine o'clock in the morning until the day's work is done. The inclosed extracts from by-laws, of which I regret that I can promise but one copy, will show the rules of the office and the prices which are paid for work.

From every article brought for marking—usually brought in a rough unornamented condition—scrapings, which may legally amount to six grains to the pound troy in gold, and eight grains to the pound in silver, are taken from various parts. These parts are called "diets," and once each year they are carefully taken to London and tested at the mint, where all the diets of each standard are melted down together, and if they are not of correct standard the assay master is liable to a fine of £200. The diets are then returned to Birmingham assay office and sold; the proceeds, which usually amount to from £400 to £500 annually, form part of the income of the office. I should have stated that the diet

is but one-half of each scraping, and that the various diets accumulate during twelve months in a three-locked safe where they are kept. The other half of each scraping is weighed, smelted, and assayed in the usual manner, and those articles which prove to be of the proper standard are stamped with a series of punches, having on them the emblem of the office, the letter indicating the year, and the mark denoting the standard, and they must also bear upon them the initials of the maker, stamped before the goods are sent to the assay office. These punches, like the diets, are kept in a safe, secured by three keys, which are carried by two of the wardens and the assay master. This, and all the precautions taken, as well as the sanctity of all patterns or designs sent to the office, are deemed to be absolutely necessary; and the assay master, should he betray any one of his trusts, is liable to a fine of £200, dismissal from office, and ineligibility to hold office thereafter.

Those articles sent to be marked which prove not to be up to the standard are ruthlessly broken up and rendered useless, save for melting. As the senders are aware that this rule is strictly carried out, the amount that is actually broken up each year seems to show that even with the best intentions a gold or silver smith's simple statement regarding his goods cannot be implicitly relied upon. It also proves that compulsory "Hall-marking" is a real protection to the buyer.

In the Birmingham assay office last year 905 ounces of gold ware and 3,286 ounces of silver ware were broken up, and of course the cost of all the labor expended upon those articles was a dead loss to the owners. The only gold standards recognized are 9, 12, 15, 18, and 22 carats.

There are two standards for silver, but the only one in practical use is 11 oz. 2 dwt. in fine metal per pound troy.

The penalty for selling unmarked gold or silver is £100 for each offense, while persons counterfeiting, or transposing, or imitating, or offering for sale gold or silver plate with marks that are counterfeited, transposed, or imitated, are liable to very severe punishment, amounting for the most serious offenses, to a large fine and imprisonment with hard labor for fourteen years.

The amount of business done at the assay office here is very large. I have been told that the weight of silver marked there is much less than in London, but the number of silver articles marked is larger, and none of the other provincial offices do nearly so large an amount of work. There were more gold articles marked in Birmingham last year than at all the other offices, London included, combined.

I inclose a copy of the last report of the assay master, also extracts from the by-laws of the assay office.

The weight of gold and silver entered at the Birmingham assay office during a number of years will, I think, show the extent of the business better than anything else. I give it in ounces. The fiscal year ends June 24.

Years.	Gold.	Silver.
1867	34, 666	84, 377
1877	114, 772	163, 344
1878	104, 202	160, 276
1879	87, 042	167, 436
1880	81, 606	242, 083
1881	70, 466	333, 020
1882	86, 837	515, 029

The increase of silver is chiefly due to the growing fashion of silver jewelry.

I did not get the status of broken-up gold and silver ware during all these years, but I was told that in the last four years the broken wares amounted to 5,467 ounces of gold and 8,315 ounces of silver.

There is a government tax on gold and silver plate which is assessed and collected at this office when the goods are stamped. During several years it amounted as follows:

	£	s.	d.
1877	19,053	18	3
1878	18,406	5	7
1879	15,752	18	1
1880	13,898	7	8
1881	15,141	12	2
1882	18,649	17	11

The income and expenditure of the office for the past four years were as follows:

Years.	Income.			Expenditure.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1879	4,347	3	6	4,043	6	5
1880	4,571	11	0	4,199	6	9
1881	4,113	16	0	3,916	15	1
1882	5,228	5	11	4,061	15	8

The expenses consist of salaries and wages, punches and tools, coals, gas, water, acid, alterations and repairs, &c., and law costs, a considerable item.

WILSON KING,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Birmingham, July 19, 1882.

Report of the Birmingham assay master for the year 1882.

The assay master reports that the gold wares entered during the year ended 24th June, 1882, amounted to 87,742 ounces, against 71,439 ounces last year, showing an increase of 16,303 ounces.

The silver wares amounted to 515,029 ounces, against 333,020 ounces last year, the increase being 182,009 ounces.

The Dominical letter used was the small black letter **g**.

The gold wares broken reached 905 ounces, against 973 ounces last year, the decrease being 68 ounces.

The weight of silver broken was 3,286 ounces, against 1,811 ounces last year, the increase being 1,475 ounces.

The amount of duty collected was £18,649 17*s.* 11*d.*, against £15,141 12*s.* 2*d.* last year, being an increase of £3,508 5*s.* 9*d.*

The total number of gold and silver wares entered at the Birmingham assay office during the year was 1,824,660, against 1,050,072 last year, being an increase of 774,588.

The number of assays made reached 81,829, against 61,957, showing an increase of 19,872 over the previous year.

The treasurer's annual cash account, having been audited by Messrs. Carter & Carter, charter accountants, is herewith submitted to the annual meeting.

WILLIAM WESTWOOD,
Assay Master and Treasurer.

To the GUARDIANS *of the Standard of Wrought Plate in Birmingham.*

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, OF VIENNA.

The result of the foreign commercial movement of this empire during the first six months of 1882 has been made public, from which the following items have been selected as of special importance.

The last statement of the "Austria" confines itself to giving the imports and exports for the month of June, 1882, the first month after the new tariff was put into actual operation. Although no great importance can be attached to the results of this month, considering the large supplies which were procured during the first five months of 1882, on which the rates of duty had been raised, yet it may not be amiss to select a few characteristic items, for instance, the import of those articles the duties on which had been increased, viz:

Articles.	By land.	Per cent. from total.	By sea.	Per cent. from total.
	*M'l centners.**		*M'l centners.*	
Coffee, Rio	6,284	73.72	2,240	26.28
Spices	682	53.58	591	46.42
Tea	57	100.00	.....	.....
Palm and cocoa-nut oil	1,526	83.34	305	16.66
Cochineal	44	100.00	.....	.....
Indigo	387	93.03	29	6.97
Cacao	10	100.00	.....	.....
Total	8,990	73.96	3,165	26.04

* The metrical centner contains 100 kilograms, being equivalent to 220 pounds avoirdupois.

The import of grain in June, 1882, was 616,251 metrical centners, against 759,387 metrical centners in June, 1881, of which, however, only 128,757 metrical centners, or a little over 20 per cent., came under the new tariff. The other 487,494 metrical centners, or 80 per cent., entered free from duty, mostly from Roumania.

The grain export of 308,629 metrical centners was scarcely half as large as the import

The duty on flour had a great effect; the import amounted to only 9,465 metrical centners, against 45,084 metrical centners in June, 1881. Of hogs there were imported only 25,561, against 51,317 in the preceding year.

Despite the decrease of the import of dutiable goods the revenues for June show that 2,237,095 florins* were received, an increase of 69,936 florins, or 3.2 per cent.

The commerce of the monarchy with foreign countries in the first six months of 1882, as far as the imports are concerned, was very active, because large importations were made of goods on which the tariff had been raised, and because the unsatisfactory harvest of 1881 had necessitated a considerable import of field product. The export, however, was less animated, occasioned principally by the insufficient beet-root crop and the diminished sales of spirits, wine, oil-seed, oil, and iron.

According to data given, the goods imported during the first six months

* The average value of the Austro-Hungarian paper florin during the first six months of 1882 was equivalent to 40.54 cents, United States currency.

of 1882 represent a value of 370,800,000 florins, while the value of the exports for the same period of time in 1881 was 332,100,000 florins, making a surplus of 38,700,000 florins of imports over exports, while, compared with the average during the six months of 1877 to 1881, there was a surplus of 20,040,000 florins of exports over imports.

The following comparative table shows the values of the first six months of 1877 to 1882 in million florins:

Years.	Goods.		Surplus of—		Export.
	Import.	Export.	Total.	Import.	
1877	255.8	257.7	513.5	.....	1.9
1878	271.2	289.0	560.2	.....	17.8
1879	255.5	340.6	596.1	.....	85.1
1880	288.4	302.7	591.1	.....	14.3
1881	299.1	343.6	642.7	.....	44.5
1882	370.8	332.1	702.9	38.7	.....

The first six months of 1882 show, therefore, the greatest amount of business done.

Compared with 1881 the imports show an increase of 71,700,000 florins, or nearly 24 per cent., and the exports a decrease of 11,500,000 florins, or 3.3 per cent.

If classified, the data of 1881 and 1882 give the following table:

[Value in millions of florins.]

Articles.	Import.				Export.			
	First six months.		Difference.		First six months.		Difference.	
	1881.	1882.	Absolute.	In per cent.	1881.	1882.	Absolute.	In per cent.
Eatables	112.5	153.5	+41.0	+ 36.4	164.0	154.8	—9.2	—5.6
Raw material	125.6	128.1	+ 2.5	+ 2.0	70.0	75.6	+5.6	+8.0
Manufactured goods	61.0	89.2	+28.2	+ 46.2	109.6	101.7	—7.9	—7.2

The value of the importation of eatables, as shown by the foregoing table, manifests a large increase. This was caused principally by the increased quantities imported, as may be seen from the following table:

Articles.	Imports during first six months of—		Increase.
	1881.	1882.	
	Met. centners.	*Met. centners.*	*Met. centners.*
Coffee, raw	176,821	259,221	82,400
Spices	7,621	15,944	8,323
Tea	1,925	4,915	2,990
Tobacco	28,956	48,436	19,480
Grain	3,565,381	4,083,096	517,715
Flour	255,484	326,426	70,942
Rice	218,501	241,430	22,929
Wine	13,401	17,708	4,307
Hogs ..... number.	208,836	213,803	4,967

The difference in the value of imports of raw material for the uses of industry is trifling, since manufacturers, partly in consequence of diminished export and partly on account of the war in Egypt, have not given any orders.

Of more important classes of raw material there were imported during the first six months the following principal articles:

Articles.	1881.	1882.	Increase.
	Met. centners.	*Met. centners.*	*Met. centners.*
Cotton	454, 682	460, 291	5, 609
Wool, raw	75, 760	89, 689	13, 929
Skins and hides	70, 986	87, 014	16, 028
Manufactured salt	84, 700	97, 315	12, 615
Linseed oil	31, 959	36, 754	4, 795
Wood	1, 005, 862	1, 183, 347	177, 485
Coal	8, 963, 120	9, 176, 336	113, 216
Cement	138, 062	320, 942	182, 880
Mineral oil	472, 299	547, 153	74, 854
Cotton yarn	53, 659	70, 932	17, 273
Jute yarn, raw	7, 983	10, 740	2, 757
Woolen yarn, raw	13. 108	15, 452	2, 344
Raw iron	239, 986	628, 986	389, 000
Pig iron	141, 334	219, 353	78, 019
Spodium	19, 281	28, 211	8, 930

The following table includes such articles whose increase in the quantity imported was particularly great:

Articles.	Imports during first six months of—		Increase.
	1881.	1882.	
	Met. centners.	*Met. centners.*	*Met. centners.*
Woolen woven goods	12, 029	16, 295	4, 266
Leather	34, 591	61, 108	26, 517
Window-glass	8, 014	14, 360	6, 346
Clay-ware of all kinds	186, 609	345, 236	161, 627
Hardware	30, 975	64, 725	33, 750
Machines	129, 385	246, 042	116, 657

The revenues, in consequence of increased imports, show an increase of 5,882,735 florins, or 39.2 per cent., amounting to 20,875,060 florins in the first six months of 1882, against 14,992,325 florins in the like period of 1881.

	1881.	1882.	Difference.	
			Absolute.	In per cent.
	Florins.	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	
Customs receipts	14, 992, 325	20, 875, 060	+5, 825, 735	+39. 2
Of the above there were paid—				
In gold	5, 032, 741	6, 715, 891	+1, 683, 150	+33. 4
In silver	9, 879, 902	14, 078, 157	+4, 198, 255	+42. 5
In paper	79, 682	81, 012	+ 1, 330	+ 1. 7

The export in eatables shows a decrease in the value of 9,200,000 florins, caused principally by the diminished export of sugar.

The following table shows the exports of the more important classes of this group:

Articles.	Exports in first six months of—		Difference.
	1881.	1882.	
	Met. centners.	*Met. centners.*	*Met. centners.*
Sugar	1,716,936	1,042,152	−674,784
Spirits	126,899	63,435	− 63,464
Beer	154,493	156,197	+ 1,704
Wine	240,647	182,316	− 58,331
Grain	3,202,584	3,612,136	+409,552
Flour	565,594	770,176	+204,582
Legumes	127,146	197,512	+ 70,366
Hogs ..... number	174,247	125,307	− 48,940

The bounties paid on exports of the first three articles of the foregoing table are consequently of more modest dimensions than those of the preceding year, which were exceptionally high, as may be seen from the following table:

First six months of—	Sugar.	Spirits.	Beer.	Total.
	Florins.	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	*Florins.*
1879	9,266,262	1,041,498	229,363	10,537,123
1880	9,407,610	812,816	177,016	10,397,442
1881	17,062,755	1,255,040	188,514	18,506,309
1882	10,687,723	655,257	190,207	11,533,187

Compared with 1881 the decrease in bounties paid out amounts to 6,973,122 florins, or 37.6 per cent.

The exports of raw material for industrial purposes show a slight increase in value. It is caused by a greater export of wood, stearine acid, skins, hides, various minerals, litharge, &c. The shipments of raw iron, coal, oil, oil-seed, and starch, however, remained considerably behind.

The following table shows the extent of the export in the class of goods named:

Articles.	Export in the first six months of—		Difference.
	1881.	1882.	
	Met. centners.	*Met. centners.*	*Met. centners.*
Wood	8,817,068	10,296,222	+1,479,154
Stearine acid	10,113	25,946	+ 15,833
Skins and hides	35,609	40,750	+ 5,141
Slate, for roofs	42,549	112,712	+ 70,163
Uncut stones	1,869,094	3,213,157	+1,344,063
Litharge	6,936	12,902	+ 5,966
Raw iron	81,731	11,693	− 70,038
Coal	16,912,244	15,968,863	− 943,381
Starch	3,441	1,595	− 1,846
Oil	13,807	5,749	− 8,058
Oil-seed	148,786	94,690	− 54,096

The export in manufactured articles suffered a slight decrease of 7,900,000 florins, in which many different articles participated. Nevertheless, many of the more important manufactures show an increase in the *quantity* exported, for instance textiles, leather, glassware, pottery,

fancy goods, locomotives, &c. Of this class of goods there may be mentioned the following leading articles:

Articles.	Export in first six months of—		Difference.
	1881.	1882.	
	Met. centners.	*Met. centners.*	*Met. centners.*
Cotton goods	14,884	13,786	− 1,098
Linen goods	25,300	30,765	+ 5,465
Jute goods	1,338	3,696	+ 2,358
Ropemakers' ware	3,479	4,164	+ 685
Woolen goods	19,144	22,026	+ 2,882
Silk goods	801	1,457	+ 656
Ready-made clothes and hats	7,466	6,641	− 825
Paper and paperware	115,876	144,587	+28,711
Leatherware	9,459	9,870	+ 411
Glassware	148,628	172,897	+24,269
Clayware, fine	20,770	20,973	+ 203
Locomotives	11,000	23,952	+12,952
Fancy goods	13,922	15,488	+ 1,566
Matches	25,303	33,120	+ 7,815

The increase in the exports, as shown in the foregoing tables, took place principally in the more ordinary kinds of goods, which accounts for the diminished value of an increased quantity.

TRAFFIC IN PRECIOUS METALS.

The traffic in precious metals for the first six months of 1882, when compared with the corresponding period of 1881, shows considerable differences, caused mainly by the heavy exports of silver to the East Indies. Import remained behind in every instance; export in gold and silver coins showed the most abnormal figures, as seen from the following table:

Precious metals.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1881.	1882.	1881.	1882.
	Kilograms.	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*
Gold coins	3,593	3,166	693	2,481
Silver coins	25,149	4,018	1,582	494,039
Silver in bullion	79,207	4,241	2,214	.....

The value of the imports in precious metals amounts to 5,127,917 florins, against 13,988,324 florins in the first six months of 1881; the value of the exports, however, was 42,634,892 florins, against only 1,235,738 florins during the like period of the preceding year. The share which each of the precious metals had in this is shown in the following tables:

Value of the gold in florins.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Excess of imports.	Excess of exports.
1881	5,452,950	976,300	4,476,650	.....
1882	4,470,600	4,099,850	370,750	.....
Difference	−982,350	+3,123,550	−4,105,850	.....

Value of the silver in florins.

1881	8,535,374	259,438	8,275,936	.....
1882	657,317	38,535,042	.....	37,877,725
Difference	7,878,057	+38,275,604	.....	46,153,661

While for the first six months of 1881 the imports exceeded the exports by 12,752,586 florins, the latter in 1882 exceeded the former by 37,506,975 florins.

The balance in the export of goods (38,700,000 florins) gives an almost equal sum, which, however, does not necessarily mean that one must naturally affect the other.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, September 22, 1882.

SWISS MUSIC BOXES.

REPORT BY CONSUL ADAMS, OF GENEVA, ON THE MANUFACTURE OF SWISS MUSIC BOXES.

REDUCTION OF DUTY ASKED FOR.

I inclose herewith a translation of a letter addressed to me by Mr. Ernest Pictet, president of the Chamber of Commerce of Geneva, transmitting a paper signed by the principal manufacturers of musical boxes here who are desirous of securing a reduction of the duty upon their goods imported into the United States. I respectfully request that the Department will bring these documents to the notice of the Commission upon the Revision of the Tariff, now in session, and take whatever other measures it may think necessary to secure their consideration by the proper authorities. The plea is founded on the facts, 1st, that the present duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem practically excludes the goods from the American market, to the loss alike of the manufacturer here, the purchaser in the United States, and the revenues of the government; and 2d, that the increased exportation expected to follow a sufficient reduction of the duty could injure no American industry, as the article in question is of Swiss manufacture exclusively, and for reasons given is almost sure to remain so.

I take an interest in the matter for the reason that, to the best of my knowledge, and I think without an exception, the exporters in Geneva have shown entire loyalty in the preparation of their invoices, and that in face of the steady decline of their trade with the United States, perhaps their most important market. It would, I think, be an advantage to all concerned, and would certainly have a happy effect among the business classes of Geneva and throughout Switzerland, if the prayer were granted.

I add a table showing the decrease in the exportations of these goods to the United States from the city of Geneva since the beginning of 1881. On the other hand, as appears from a second table, the total exportation from my district, to which the manufacture is confined, shows a considerable increase since 1879, when the effect of the long commercial crisis in Switzerland began to pass away. This increase is wholly in the exportation from Sainte Croix, which produces an inferior article at cheaper rates, shipped wholesale, and mostly on consignment to branch houses in the United States.

The goods sent from Geneva are of the most perfect kind produced, and almost always sold here to single purchasers at retail.

L. T. ADAMS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Geneva, August 29, 1882.

The Chamber of Commerce to Consul Adams.

HOW MUSIC BOXES ARE MADE.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE,
Geneva, August 28, 1882.

The vast field which the United States of America offers to all commercial enterprises is, to a great extent, a forbidden land to the musical-box trade, owing to the almost prohibitory duty which is levied upon this class of goods.

With 30 per cent. to add to the wholesale price of a musical box, it becomes an unapproachable luxury for the class to which it would be a real boon. Apart from this side of the question comes the vital consideration whether this high duty of 30 per cent. is necessary. Unlike a quantity of other goods, the manufacture of musical boxes has never left this country, in which it originated, and all goes to show that there is little or no probability that it will ever leave it.

So high a duty is conceivable where a national industry has to be protected and developed, but for the following reasons this consideration cannot exist in the present instance.

The mechanical portion of a musical box, the cylinder (barrel), wheels, &c., in a word, the blank, *is alone* susceptible of being made by machinery. When we come to the truly musical and artistical portion, no machinery, however perfect, can replace the eyes and above all the ears of an expert workman or workwoman.

The marking of the music on the cylinder (*piquage*), the verification of the same, both operations having to be performed from the written music, require human intelligence to interpret the composer's ideas.

Finally, the finishing, above all, needs the ears of an experienced musician to judge whether the effect produced is in accordance with that intended by the composer.

In short, three-fourths of the work must necessarily be performed by human hands. Several attempts have been made to substitute mechanical for human labor, *but all alike have failed*, and it is an undeniable fact that labor is far cheaper in Switzerland than in the United States. .

This city being visited by vast numbers of American citizens, our retail department has given us a very good opportunity of judging how far the present tariff goes towards preventing many would-be purchasers from becoming actual buyers. The question invariably asked is, "What is the duty on your goods into the states?" On being informed of the state of the case, which makes the price of a 100-franc instrument into 130 francs, it will be readily understood that many purses remain closed, the duty destroying, in their mind, the real advantage of buying in the manufactory, and the consequence is, to the disadvantage of all concerned—buyer, seller, and United States revenue—no sale is effected.

All these reasons combined bear out the statement that there is but little chance of this industry ever emigrating, and that by reducing the tariff on musical boxes the United States of America, whilst conferring a favor on manufacturers and consumers will be benefited in its own revenue by an increased importation of these articles, for experience teaches that, far from being a loser by reducing import duties, all countries have on the contrary reaped large increase of this branch of revenue.

Exportation of musical boxes to the United States from Geneva and Sainte Croix (invoiced at Vevey), 1881 *and* 1882.

	Geneva.		Vevey.	
	1881.	1882.	1881.	1882.
First quarter	$1,038	$780	$4,641	$5,576
Second quarter	3,540	1,962	9,494	19,241
Third quarter	7,385	.....	20,395	.....
Fourth quarter	5,684	.....	34,385	.....

Exportation of musical boxes from the consular district of Geneva to the United States, 1873–1882.

	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.
First quarter	$12,273	$9,728	$4,917	$3,209	$4,323	$2,525	$6,378	$2,758	$5,679	$6,356
Second quarter	14,105	8,718	4,562	6,354	2,232	2,847	5,272	12,871	13,034	21,204
Third quarter	26,762	16,636	16,076	8,567	3,391	7,730	8,851	23,350	27,780	.....
Fourth quarter	30,540	13,711	10,443	9,152	9,761	5,363	15,705	11,554	40,069	.....
Total	83,680	48,793	35,998	27,282	19,707	18,465	36,206	50,533	85,562	.....

NAVIGATION AND TRADE AT GIBRALTAR.

REPORT BY CONSUL SPRAGUE.

By the accompanying table, relating to the navigation of Gibraltar, it will be seen that 4,887 steamers and 535 sailing vessels have entered this port during the past twelve months, of which 3,722 steamers and 223 sailing vessels were under the British flag.

These figures show an increase of 259 in the number of steamers of all nationalities on the previous year, and a decrease of 81 sailing vessels.

DECREASE IN AMERICAN SHIPPING.

Only nine vessels under our flag entered this port during that period, two being yachts, two bringing cargo direct from the United States for this market, and the remainder being either wind-bound or calling in "for orders."

To judge from passing events in the Mediterranean and elsewhere, there is no disputing that the United States have lost nearly all share in the foreign carrying-trade of the world, and will soon have no share in it whatever if nothing is done in the shape of legislation to come to its relief. In whatever may be devised to revive it, it is important that it should be directed principally to what pertains to the development of steam navigation abroad, as even in British navigation sailing vessels are now becoming almost extinct.

ENGLAND'S STEAM MARINE.

The war just terminated in Egypt, to an observer at Gibraltar, affords a very striking proof of the extent and great resources of Great Britain in whatever appertains to her steam marine service, as regards the transport of troops and munitions of war to whatever point they are required, and one cannot but admire the infinite number of magnificent and powerful steamers belonging to her merchant service which, for some time past, have been constantly communicating with this port, and which have suddenly been converted into transports for even the reception of cavalry and everything else connected with that branch of service, working so smoothly and satisfactorily as to leave nothing to be desired; besides finding here a handy coaling station, which still continues to keep up its reputation both as regards moderate prices for steam coal and the expeditious dispatch it affords for the coaling of steamers. As steam navigation increases, so does the importance of the steam coal trade follow.

All this should certainly exercise a powerful influence over even those who might have been inclined to give a hearing to the advocates for the

retrocession of this fortress to Spain, even if the latter power were disposed to grant important concessions to Great Britain in return.

GRAIN AND FLOUR TRADE.

Contrary to the most sanguine expectations Spain continues postponing the reduction of the duties on the importation of foreign cereals, notwithstanding that her own crops of wheat, barley, and especially Indian corn, have this year proved under average ones. A decrease on the duties on foreign wheat and barley would no doubt attract a large supply of foreign grains into that country for sale, chiefly Indian hard wheat from the Bombay district, which, besides its comparative moderate cost over other descriptions of hard wheat, seems to have become a favorite article in Andalusia for immediate use by mixing with Spanish kinds.

Prices of flour having declined in France, considerable quantities are being now imported direct from Marseilles by steamers, which only consume three days on the voyage. It somewhat affects the importation of supplies from the United States, which at this present moment can hardly compete with the Marseilles prices. It is possible, however, that during the approaching winter months some encouragement may offer for supplies from the United States, as the demands for the Algarve markets on the coast of Portugal have lately somewhat revived.

DECLINE IN THE TOBACCO TRADE.

There has been a notable decline in the traffic of tobacco at this port for some time past, and, although the contraband trade still exists, it must be on a very limited scale. This falling off may be chiefly attributed to the continued friendly disposition of the British authorities towards Spain, discouraging as much as possible this forced trade from this fortress, a subject upon which my former reports have fully dwelt, and which are now confirmed from the correspondence which has just been published between the British and Spanish Governments relative to a proposed treaty, and in which the tobacco trade from Gibraltar figures prominently.

The importations of tobaccos produced in the United States have, consequently, for some time past, been considerably reduced.

DROUGHT IN GIBRALTAR.

This fortress and neighboring country continue to suffer from a long duration of drought. The average fall of rain taken for twenty years has been about 35 inches, while the rainfall during the past season, beginning from September, 1881, has only reached 16 inches, and no rain has yet fallen during the present season, which is almost unprecedented.

Most of the private tanks are empty, and the water taken from the public wells, from which the town chiefly obtains its supplies for flushing purposes, is hardly potable.

Frequent experiments have been carried out on various parts of the rock for the discovery of the purest water, but hitherto without success. The case is one that is constantly receiving the attention of the British authorities, as experience shows that seasonable rains cannot be depended upon.

HORATIO J. SPRAGUE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gibraltar, October 3, 1882.

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Gibraltar for the year ending September 30, 1882.

Flag.	From—	ENTERED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Austrian	Chiefly from ports in Europe.	23		25		48	
Belgian		23				23	
British		3,722		223		3,945	
Danish		34		5		39	
Dutch		60		13		73	
French		313		27		340	
German Confederation		99		14		113	
Greek		44		19		63	
Italian		72		71		143	
Norwegian		141		41		182	
Portuguese				22		22	
Swedish		49		28		77	
Russian		7		20		27	
Spanish		298		19		317	
Turkish		1				1	
American	United States 4 Madeira 2 Austria 1 France 1 Spain 1	1	381	8	4,486.53	9	4,867.53
Total		4,887		535		5,422	

Flag.	To—	CLEARED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Austrian	Chiefly from ports in Europe.	23		24		47	
Belgian		23				23	
British		3,716		216		3,932	
Danish		34		5		39	
Dutch		60		12		72	
French		310		26		336	
German Confederation		99		13		112	
Greek		44		18		62	
Italian		72		67		139	
Norwegian		141		39		180	
Portuguese				19		19	
Swedish		49		26		75	
Russian		7		19		26	
Spanish		292		16		308	
Turkish		1				1	
American	United States 4 Madeira 2 Austria 1 France 1 Spain 1	1	381	8	4,486.53	9	4,867.53
Total		4,872		508		5,380	

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE AZORES.

REPORT BY CONSUL DABNEY, OF FAYAL.

I have the honor to submit to you the tabulated commercial returns for the calendar year 1881, my last report having embraced the fiscal year ended June 30, 1880.

As I mentioned in my dispatch of February 17, 1881, owing to a change of system, a gap occurred in the custom-house statistics, and, consequently, my returns date from the beginning of the calendar year 1881.

A comparison of the results of trade between Fayal and the United States for the fiscal year of 1880 and calendar of 1881 shows us that, while a decrease to the amount of $33,034.20 in the total of imports from all countries took place, the imports from the United States were augmented by $3,889.46; and it will be noted that the amount of imports from the United States in 1881 nearly equals that from all other countries combined, as follows:

Total of imports in 1881	$145,983 76
Amount of imports from the United States	71,086 96

Thus, if the value be insignificant, nevertheless our proportion of the trade is satisfactory; and the above figures confirm what I have before stated to the Department, that the trade between this place and our country needs no fostering, in view of the numerous small traders engaged in the business and the facilities of communication during the summer months.

The diminution in the value of general imports in 1881 I regard as accidental, and due in the main to over importation the previous year.

The exports to the United States during 1881 were, as usual, of but little value, the principal item being that of straw goods, which amounted to $27,593.39.

Emigration from the Azores to the United States, after having slackened, has been increasing rapidly for the past two years; but I am unable to give correct statistics regarding this, from the fact that quite a large proportion of the emigrants, unable, owing to the conscription laws, to obtain passports, embark clandestinely.

From the Island of St. Michaels, where many of the lower class are very poor and unable to raise money for their passages, large numbers, assisted by the Hawaiian Government, are embarking for the Sandwich Islands.

S. W. DABNEY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Fayal, Azores, May 12, 1882.

Statement showing the imports at Fayal for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value entered.	Amount of duties.	Whence imported.
	Pounds.			
Animal products	8,842	$987 14	$279 82	United States, England, France, Germany.
Fisheries	49,794	2,017 05	681 88	United States, Englang and France.
Wool and furs	7,808	7,070 62	3,520 52	United States, England, France, Germany.
Silk	409	2,782 95	862 09	Do.
Cottons	149,474	33,070 71	11,467 35	Do.
Linen	11,537	1,398 03	257 04	United States and England.
Wood	.....	11,166 01	1,360 55	United States, England, France, Germany.
Flour	1,409,487	21,454 10	1,394 54	United States, England, France, Brazil.
Colonial goods	323,443	17,113 30	12,074 28	Do.
Vegetable materials	39,523	1,351 88	311 30	Do.
Metals	148,678	11,946 88	1,265 41	United States, England, France, Germany.
Minerals	3,270,609	6,094 02	2,351 30	United States, England and France.
Liquors	.....	2,362 95	2,091 63	United States, England, France, Holland.
Glass, &c	32,776	2,365 89	912 14	United States, England, France, Spain.
Paper and its application	2,565	565 80	62 82	United States, England, France, Germany.
Sundries	.....	24,236 43	3,070 67	Do.
Total	.....	145,983 76	41,963 34	

Statement showing the exports from Fayal for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Value including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Cottons	$673 81	United States.
Flour	3 60	Brazil.
Vegetable materials	232 03	United States.
Minerals	180 36	Do.
Wine	257 04	United States and Germany.
Straw hats and braid	27,941 47	United States and Brazil.
Sundries	3,901 21	
Total	33,189 52	

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Fayal, Azores, for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Flag.	From or to—	ENTERED.						CLEARED					
		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Argentine	Boston			1	332	1	332			1	332	1	332
	St. Michael's			1	332	1	332			1	332	1	332
Belgian	Port Haytien			1	224	1	224			1	224	1	224
Brazilian	Pernambuco			1	303	1	303			1	303	1	303
British	United States	10	13,560	5	1,202	15	14,762	10	13,560	5	1,202	15	14,762
	Great Britain	6	7,201	6	1,861	12	9,062	6	7,201	6	1,861	12	9,062
	Coast of Africa	*1	437	1	311	2	748	1	437	1	311	2	748
	Hayti	1	473			1	473	1	473			1	473
	Brazil	2	1,453	1	181	3	1,634	2	1,453	1	181	3	1,634
	Venezuela			1	289	1	289			1	289	1	289
	Ascencion	*1	805			1	805	1	805			1	805
	Bermuda	*2	1,343			2	1,343	2	1,343			2	1,343
	Demerara	1	1,194			1	1,194	1	1,194			1	1,194
	Montevideo	*1	1,130			1	1,130	1	1,130			1	1,130
	Jamaica	1	705			1	705	1	705			1	705
	Spain			1	360	1	360			1	360	1	360
	Portugal			1	204	1	204			1	204	1	204
	Antwerp			1	1,061	1	1,061			1	1,061	1	1,061
	Valparaiso			1	608	1	608			1	608	1	608
Dutch	Celebes			1	289	1	289			1	289	1	289
	West Indies	2	2,898	1	645	3	3,543	2	2,898	1	645	3	3,543
French	France			2	447	2	447			2	447	2	447
	Brazil	*1	800			1	800	1	800			1	800
	New York	1	2,252			1	2,252	1	2,252			1	2,252
German	New York			†1	794	1	794						
	Germany	3	4,386	2	1,622	5	6,008	3	4,386	2	1,622	5	6,008
	London			2	1,987	2	1,987			2	1,987	2	1,987
	Rangoon			1	499	1	499			1	499	1	499
	St. Vincent	*1	2,300			1	2,300	1	2,300			1	2,300
	Taltal			1	470	1	470			1	470	1	470
	Antwerp	1	889			1	889	1	889			1	889
	Valparaiso	*1	1,720			1	1,720	1	172			1	1,720
Greek	Cardiff			1	712	1	712			1	712	1	712
	New York			1	650	1	650			1	650	1	650
Italian	Spain			1	535	1	535			1	535	1	535
	Buenos Ayres			1	653	1	653			1	653	1	653
Portuguese	Portugal and islands	36	36,611	8	1,538	44	38,149	36	36,611	8	1,538	44	38,149

Flag.	From or to—	ENTERED.						CLEARED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.
American	Whaling			24	5,001	24	5,001			24	5,001	24	5,001
	United States			10	4,623	10	4,623			19	4,066	9	4,066
	do	*1	3,250			1	3,250	1	3,250			1	3,250
	Madeira and the Azores			7	3,558	7	3,558			7	3,558	7	3,558
	Iloilo			1	1,710	1	1,710			1	1,710	1	1,710
	Grand Canary			1	293	1	293			1	293	1	293
	Spain			*1	154	1	154			1	154	1	154
						162	116,855					160	115,504

* Men-of-war, 11,566 tons. † Vessels condemned, 1,351 tons.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Fayal and the United States for the year 1881.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
Animal products ..... pounds	3,044	$582 59	.....	.....
Fisheries ..... do	48,701	1,845 00	.....	.....
Wool and furs ..... do	85	59 37	.....	.....
Silk	.....	2 50	.....	.....
Cottons ..... pounds	88,576	17,946 61	291	$667 14
Linen ..... do	61	52 14	.....	.....
Wood	.....	10,183 30	.....	.....
Flour ..... pounds	1,385,652	20,877 41	.....	.....
Colonial goods ..... do	2,844	374 64	.....	.....
Vegetable materials	1,921	86 25	732	229 73
Metals	21,204	7,992 32	.....	.....
Minerals	136,888	2,303 21	13,754	178 57
Liquors	.....	51 70	.....	.....
Glass, &c	2,354	416 70	.....	.....
Paper	745	123 58	.....	.....
Sundries	.....	8,189 64	.....	3,862 59
Straw hats ..... number	.....	.....	193,154	27,593 39
Wine	.....	.....	.....	109 82
Total	.....	71,086 96	.....	32,641 24

EXPORTS FROM MARACAIBO.

REPORT BY CONSUL PLUMACHER.

I have the honor to report upon Maracaibo exports for the year 1881, separating them according to the different lines of carriage.

It will be seen that the Red D line of steamers via Curaçoa, which is an American organization although employing foreign vessels, enjoys the greatest part of the carrying trade of this port.

Next in importance is the Atlas Steamship Company, of Liverpool, which company has, however, lost much ground on account of its alleged disregard for the interests and convenience of its shippers.

Sailing vessels have done but little during the past year, there having been but two under the American flag plying to this port. These returns have been made with great care, and although the carelessness prevailing in all matters in this country renders it difficult to secure accurate data, yet I believe them to be as correct as can be obtained.

The Red D line above referred to is gradually procuring American steamers, and it is expected that in a short time all of its vessels will be under our own flag.

E. H. PLUMACHER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Maracaibo, Venezuela.

9 NOV

Date of dispatch of steamers.	Coffee.		Bark.		Hides.		Skins.		Copaiba.		Isinglass.		Cocoa.		Sundries.		Total.	
	Bags.	Kilograms.	Bales.	Kilograms.	Number.	Kilograms.	Bales.	Kilograms.	Boxes.	Kilograms.	Packages.	Kilograms.	Bags.	Kilograms.	Packages.	Kilograms.	Packages.	Kilograms.
1881.																		
Jan. 14	5,482	333,047					17	1,180							3	107	5,502	334,334
Jan. 28	6,800	412,559					12	1,012	15	526	10	809			2	68	6,839	414,974
Feb. 25	7,448	451,990	45	2,325	587	6,959	4	368			10	1,068			6	281	8,100	462,991
Mar. 10	4,125	243,876	167	9,055			13	1,060	10	515	11	936					4,326	255,442
Mar. 24	3,906	237,535	121	6,666	48	536	22	1,774	33	1,635	44	2,376	30	1,299	356	20,758	4,560	272,579
Apr. 8	3,380	207,915					24	1,858	23	1,145	7	602	34	1,610	1	11	3,469	212,341
Apr. 22	3,634	221,976	42	2,062			23	1,796	21	1,063	4	357			1	12	3,725	227,266
May 6	7,024	424,420	250	13,825			29	2,350	12	596	3	289	97	4,622			7,415	446,102
May 19	7,215	423,000	172	10,170											1	75	7,388	433,245
June 3	5,319	302,124	160	9,007			15	1,375	11	576	4	322	134	6,519			5,643	319,923
June 18	4,052	241,456	185	10,511			15	1,126	48	2,316	1	57	29	1,357	7	221½	4,337	257,044½
July 1	3,515	213,213	242	13,660			26	1,944							73	1,075	3,856	229,892
July 15	5,976	353,503	280	15,939			17	1,291									6,273	370,733
July 29	4,089	247,106	311	17,327	235	2,563	15	1,091					127	5,546	1	28	4,778	273,661
Aug. 12	6,656	400,452	89	4,761	472	5,504	32	2,523	20	1,049			67	3,211	2	303	7,338	417,808
Aug. 26	5,857	349,806	184	10,210	566	6,318	5	325	4	169	3	75	10	469	191	3,810	6,820	371,182
Sept. 9	3,956	234,761	36	1,835			23	1,939	7	341					12	441	4,034	289,317
Sept. 23	4,232	253,513	84	4,646			3	340							9	380	4,328	258,879
Oct. 7	3,803	226,247	45	2,406	237	2,591	15	1,178							59	1,499	4,159	233,921
Oct. 21	6,747	402,457	551	30,193	604	7,043	21	1,623	24	1,032			26	1,291	112	2,335	8,085	445,974
Nov. 5	7,091	416,058	51	2,001	50	539	20	1,619	10	500					7	200	7,229	420,917
Nov. 17	4,911	289,974	401	22,456	901	9,281	30	2,411	10	548					6	152	6,259	324,822
Dec. 2	5,367	299,661	120	6,600	91	1,154	6	577	9	463					94	2,582½	5,687	311,037½
Dec. 16	4,934	286,317			867	9,456							20	1,104	8	1,622	5,829	298,499
Dec. 29	7,007	409,303	145	7,880	656	7,765	20	1,205	13	664					2		7,843	426,817
Total	132,526	7,881,869	3,681	203,535	5,314	59,709	407	32,065	270	13,138	97	6,891	574	27,028	953	35,961	143,822	8,259,696

NOTE.—The greater part of these shipments consists of cargo destined for New York, but there are also included the shipments for Curaçoa, and for European ports, via the following steamship lines: The Hamburg American Packet Company; the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company; the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique; the Red D line of steamships via New York.

Specification of cargo shipped in the year 1881 *from Maracaibo to New York by steamers of the Atlas Steamship Company (limited).*

[Weight in Spanish pounds.]

No.	Steamer's name.	Voyage numbers.	Dispatch date.	Coffee.		Bark.		Hides.		Skins.		Copaiba.		Isinglass.		Cocoa.		Sundries.		Total.		Equal to bags of coffee.
				Bags.	Weight.	Packages.	Weight.	Number.	Weight.	Bales.	Weight.	Boxes.	Weight.	Packages.	Weight.	Bags.	Weight.	Packages.	Weight.	Packages.	Weight.	
1	Arran	8	Jan. 15	4,253	552,561	218	26,281	2,186	56,169	36	6,849	8	963	13	1,716	.....	.....	13	1,186	6,727	645,725	5,259
2	Arden	8	Feb. 5	7,046	914,550	26	2,845	1,732	40,085	63	11,587	.....	.....	5	502	.....	.....	55	6,159	8,927	975,728	7,792
3	....do	9	Feb. 26	4,773	637,789	410	49,530	1,861	43,951	52	9,328	8	912	17	3,805	.....	.....	22	2,675	7,143	947,490	6,034
4	....do	10	Mar. 11	3,002	396,972	.....	.....	1,362	33,083	38	7,073	.....	.....	10	1,750	.....	.....	12	4,962	4,424	442,890	3,498
5	....do	11	Mar. 24	2,621	352,855	20	2,301	706	15,989	13	2,329	10	900	10	1,689	54	5,000	44	6,433	3,478	387,496	3,014
6	....do	12	Apr. 8	3,240	422,867	30	3,000	1,345	34,483	31	5,670	.....	.....	8	311	80	7,284	.....	.....	4,734	474,155	3,787
7	....do	13	Apr. 22	5,380	703,763	16	1,664	952	23,126	27	4,463	8	720	1	108	97	10,583	18	2,048	6,499	746,475	5,819
8	....do	14	May 19	3,032	392,704	80	9,376	1,989	47,001	54	9,738	44	4,553	14	1,981	114	12,037	46	6,796	5,373	484,186	4,020
9	....do	15	June 15	5,280	680,680	86	10,502	890	21,322	52	8,372	.....	.....	1	166	179	18,487	4	56	6,492	739,585	5,919
10	... do	16	July 2	2,283	285,781	76	11,215	686	15,587	9	1,343	.....	.....	1	112	72	8,470	.....	.....	3,127	322,508	2,661
11	Arran	9	July 23	3,512	435,201	98	13,035	1,880	46,144	15	2,538	.....	.....	3	300	91	11,604	24	3,480	5,623	532,802	4,320
12	Arden	17	Sept. 29	3,595	465,391	62	8,140	1,278	26,263	15	2,386	.....	.....	3	336	35	3,302	7	1,602	4,995	507,420	4,092
13	Alpin	1	Oct. 15	5,345	684,419	554	70,625	1,586	40,309	15	2,569	.....	.....	.....	.....	48	4,920	.....	.....	7,548	802,842	6,651
14	Arden	18	Nov. 12	4,071	521,443	52	6,185	768	17,658	10	1,595	.....	.....	2	230	.....	.....	2	.....	4,905	547,111	4,367
15	Alpin	2	Dec. 7	3,921	498,142	2	215	891	19,199	28	4,838	.....	.....	2	240	.....	.....	74	13,000	4,918	535,634	4,309
16	Arden	19	Dec. 28	3,248	415,560	.....	.....	314	7,390	12	1,950	.....	.....	2	241	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,576	425,141	3,357
				64,602	8,386,678	1,730	214,914	20,426	487,709	470	82,628	78	8,048	92	12,987	770	82,227	321	47,907	88,489	9,316,688	74,899
Equal to bags of coffee				64,602	.....	2,595	.....	5,107	.....	940	.....	78	.....	276	.....	770	.....	513	.....	.....	.....	.....

E. H. PLUMACHER,
United States Consul.

Specification of cargo shipped in the year 1881 *by sailing vessels from Maracaibo to New York.*

Ship's name.	Dispatch date.	Coffee.		Hides.	
		Bags.	Kilograms.	Number.	Kilograms.
Alcira	Apr. 5	4,214	252,236	75	675
Harriet G	May 31	4,479	264,741	772	8,028
Alcira	July 1	4,566	272,539	924	9,274
Harriet G	Sept. 2	4,353	259,175	1,702	16,963
Alcira	Sept. 23	3,451	202,223	2,058	22,206
Mary, Queen of the Seas	Nov. 8	2,125	123,810	.....	.....
Alcira	Dec. 5	4,615	270,206	821	8,594
Totals	.....	27,803	1,644,930	6,352	65,738

Ship's name.	Dispatch date.	Skins.		Bark.		Copaiba.		Cocoa.	
		Bales.	Kilograms.	Bales	Kilograms.	Boxes.	Kilograms.	Bags.	Kilograms.
Alcira	Apr. 5	9	637	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Harriet G	May 31	14	1,190	8	372	15	732	91	3,815
Alcira	July 1	35	2,040	.....	.....	16	656	124	5,856
Harriet G	Sept. 2	40	3,157	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Alcira	Sept. 23	91	6,390	.....	.....	21	989	.....	.....
Mary, Queen of the Seas	Nov. 8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Alcira	Dec. 5	8	678	.....	.....	.....	.....	48	2,760
Totals	.....	197	14,092	8	372	52	2,377	263	12,431

Ship's name.	Dispatch date.	Isinglass.		Sundries.		Total.	
		Packages.	Kilograms.	Packages.	Kilograms.	Packages.	Kilograms.
Alcira	Apr. 5	.....	.....	327	9,994	4,625	263,542
Harriet G	May 31	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,379	278,876
Alcira	July 1	1	93	.....	.....	5,666	290,458
Harriet G	Sept. 2	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,095	279,295
Alcira	Sept. 23	3	145	.....	.....	5,624	231,953
Mary, Queen of the Seas	Nov. 8	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,125	123,810
Alcira	Dec. 5	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,492	282,238
Totals	.....	4	238	327	9,994	35,006	1,750,172

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF ROUEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL RHODES FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1882.

Since my last annual report there is but little change in the cotton industry of this neighborhood, its continued depression being chiefly ascribed by the manufacturers to the unsatisfactory condition of the treaty of commerce between Great Britain and France. Particulars in reference to the cost of manufacture in this industry have been furnished in reply to circular dated December 10, 1881.*

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

The imports at Rouen from the United States nearly doubled the exports, the leading article of imports being wheat, the second Indian corn, the third cotton. At Calais the exports exceed the imports by about one-third, the imports consisting of two articles, wheat and timber.

*Published in Consular Reports No. 23.

The imports at Dunkirk amounted to $3,615,429, and the exports to $5,925. Of the imports $3,228,210 was in wheat, and $260,404 in petroleum.

The importation of wheat for the three ports was $5,759,716; of Indian corn, $952,883; a considerable falling off from previous years.

The agent at Dunkirk complains of heated cargoes of Indian corn from Louisiana.

HEATED INDIAN CORN FROM LOUISIANA.

Cargoes of this product arriving at Rouen from the same place are generally in good condition, although occasional complaints are made. The generally good condition of the cargo indicates that the heating is the result of negligence on the part of the shippers. In this may be found the cause of the decreased importation of this product.

AMERICAN VS. FRENCH WHEAT.

The wheat crop of France appears to be fair this year. It remains to be seen whether the American grain dealers, stimulated by a good home crop, will be able to undersell their French competitors in French ports. Should they succeed in doing so for one or two seasons, the French agriculturists would probably change the wheat for some other crop, and thus open a permanent market for the American product.

DECREASE OF AMERICAN SHIPPING.

As will be remarked in the return of American vessels, the number continues to diminish with each succeeding year. During the last fiscal year there were but three. The year before there were six, and the year previous to that, ten. The carrying trade between the United States and this port, as elsewhere, is chiefly done by British vessels, of which there were entered during the fiscal year from all ports 1,063; of these 813 were steamers and 250 sailing vessels.

ALBERT RHODES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rouen, August 11, 1882.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Rouen and the United States for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
	Kilos.		*Kilos.*	
Wheat, 814,119 bushels	22,203,266	$1,424,710		
Sawed lumber	3,523,650	(*)		
Cotton, 1,524,894 pounds	726,140	167,738		
Indian corn, 682,805 bushels	18,208,138	682,805		
Laces and tulles				$902,445 42
Upholstery goods and wall-paper				162,830 07
Toilet articles and perfumery				45,777 15
Woolen cloth				9,965 18
Merinoes, cashmere, and miscellaneous dress-goods				7,219 77
Oils				4,363 57
Willows				3,339 78
Hardware, machinery, rails and iron				712 00
Wines and liquors				84 70
Miscellaneous				7,3?2 96
Ballast not designated			1,400,000	
Marl and limestone			2,050,000	
Total	44,661,194	2,275,253	3,450,000	1,144,120 55

*Value not given.

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Rouen for the year ending June 30, 1882.

ENTERED.

Flag.	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
French	188	50,183	191	24,509	379	74,692
British	813	324,417	250	48,085	1,063	372,502
American			3	2,110	3	2,110
Norwegian	25	8,747	70	23,485	95	33,232
German	29	15,208	31	6,615	60	21,823
Swedish	36	17,690	11	3,054	47	20,744
Russian	2	1,044	30	8,372	32	9,416
Danish	17	12,794	5	1,351	22	14,145
Italian	1	695	23	11,785	24	12,480
Austrian	3	2,595	6	2,248	9	4,844
Dutch	1	683	8	2,221	9	2,904
Belgian	5	934			5	934
Spanish	2	879			2	879
Portuguese	1	211			1	211
Greek	2	1,445	2	494	4	1,939
Total	1,125	437,525	630	134,329	1,755	571,855

CLEARED.

Flag.	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
French	187	49,503	196	25,680	383	75,183
British	812	324,373	256	52,354	1,068	376,727
American			3	2,110	3	2,110
Norwegian	24	8,715	68	22,150	92	31,865
German	20	16,382	32	6,753	61	23,135
Swedish	36	17,690	10	3,772	46	21,462
Russian	2	1,044	30	8,372	32	9,416
Danish	17	12,794	5	1,351	22	14,145
Italian	1	695	27	13,393	28	14,088
Austrian	2	1,740	6	2,284	8	4,024
Dutch	1	683	8	2,818	9	3,501
Belgian	5	934			5	934
Spanish	2	879			2	879
Portuguese	1	211			1	211
Greek	2	1,445	2	494	4	1,939
Total	1,121	437,088	643	142,531	1,764	579,619

CALAIS.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Calais and the United States for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Value of imports.	Value of exports.
Lace and tulles		$1,638,649 86
Linen goods		7,072 78
Wine		888 40
Horses		17,640 20
Furniture		248 30
Wheat	$1,106,796 00	
Timber	24,050 00	
Total	1,130,846 00	1,664,499 54

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Calais for the year ending June 30, 1882.

ENTERED.

Flag.	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
French	602	234, 847	115	10, 570	717	245, 417
English	1, 144	232, 624	130	22, 284	1, 274	254, 908
German			23	6, 367	23	6, 367
American			1	1, 361	1	1, 361
Austrian			3	1, 569	3	1, 569
Danish	1	249	5	985	6	1, 234
Dutch (dredgers)	11	710	2	410	13	1, 120
Italian			4	2, 222	4	2, 222
Russian	1	414	23	8, 468	24	8, 882
Norwegian			108	34, 212	108	34, 212
Swedish	1	314	37	9, 984	38	10, 298
Total	1, 760	469, 158	451	98, 432	2, 211	567, 590

CLEARED.

Flag.	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
French	602	234, 847	115	10, 570	717	245, 417
English	1, 144	232, 624	130	22, 284	1, 274	254, 908
German			23	6, 367	23	6, 367
American			1	1, 361	1	1, 361
Austrian			3	1, 569	3	1, 569
Danish	1	249	5	985	6	1, 234
Dutch (dredgers)	11	710	2	410	13	1, 120
Italian			4	2, 222	4	2, 222
Russian	1	414	23	8, 468	24	8, 882
Norwegian			108	34, 212	108	34, 212
Swedish	1	314	37	9, 984	38	10, 298
Total	1, 760	469, 158	451	98, 432	2, 211	567, 590

DUNKIRK.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Dunkirk and the United States for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
	Kilograms.		*Kilograms.*	
Salt meats	23, 357	$4, 655		
Fish-oil	224, 421	26, 930		
Wheat	53, 803, 500	3, 228, 210		
Maize	9, 002, 600	270, 078		
Sawn timber	1, 048, 000	25, 152		
Petroleum	6, 510, 106	260, 404		
Oil			1, 225	$245
Coal			33, 500	1, 340
Linen			1, 397	1, 397
Ropes			6, 421	1, 541
Hardware			14, 766	1, 181
Cables			2, 015	221
Total	70, 611, 984	3, 615, 429	59, 324	5, 925

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Dunkirk for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Flag.	ENTERED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
French	312	131,744	527	75,477	839	207,221
Russian	5	2,554	42	11,816	47	14,370
Swedish	13	6,428	68	20,594	81	27,022
Norwegian	37	19,794	94	31,888	131	51,682
Danish	47	32,634	20	2,701	67	35,335
British	834	373,816	552	124,324	1,386	498,140
German	60	30,946	51	13,032	111	43,978
Dutch	9	5,308	8	1,101	17	6,409
Belgian	26	5,430	.....	.....	26	5,430
Spanish	19	11,051	.....	.....	19	11,051
Austrian	.....	.....	8	3,010	8	3,010
Italian	3	2,902	40	18,592	43	21,494
Greek	5	4,275	2	803	7	5,078
American	.....	.....	6	5,277	6	5,277
Total	1,370	626,882	1,418	308,615	2,788	935,497

Flag.	CLEARED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
French	321	130,478	532	67,492	853	197,970
Russian	5	2,554	39	10,745	44	13,299
Swedish	13	6,296	61	18,824	74	25,120
Norwegian	34	15,889	91	31,344	125	47,233
Danish	40	28,878	28	6,568	68	35,446
British	856	383,929	547	131,376	1,403	515,305
German	46	23,894	65	21,066	111	44,960
Dutch	8	4,761	9	2,143	17	6,904
Belgian	26	4,966	.....	.....	26	4,966
Spanish	19	11,051	.....	.....	19	11,051
Austrian	.....	.....	10	3,809	10	3,809
Italian	2	1,646	44	23,533	46	25,179
Greek	4	3,457	2	1,144	6	4,601
American	.....	.....	7	6,483	7	6,483
Total	1,374	617,799	1,440	324,527	2,814	942,326

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES OF MARSEILLES.

REPORT (DATED SEPTEMBER 30, 1882) BY CONSUL TAYLOR ON THE COMMERCE, NAVIGATION, AND INDUSTRIES OF MARSEILLES FOR THE YEAR 1881.

GENERAL TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

As compared to preceding years, when the business of Marseilles appeared to increase steadily, the year 1881 has generally been pronounced unsatisfactory.

A simple glance at the results of the years 1880 and 1881 shows that the aggregate of goods handled in 1881 was more than 34,000 tons less than in 1880.

Many reasons might be assigned for this state of things. The uncertainty of what was in preparation concerning the new French tariff was, without question, one of no small importance. But besides this merely occasional cause of decline, there are others of greater import to the future of Marseilles.

The immense exportation of wheat from the United States to northern ports of France formerly receiving their supplies from here is one of these, as it has occasioned a decrease of no less than 76,000 tons in the transportation by rail of grains from Marseilles to the interior of France.

Again, the competition of other Mediterranean ports, being greatly favored by the high prices in force at this port for the landing, lading, and transportation by land, is threatening, indeed is beginning to divert the current of transit, at all times one of the prominent features of Marseilles trade. This danger is now the object of the most active exertions on the part of the chamber of commerce, which loses no opportunity of presenting before the government its complaints and entreaties to bring about a reduction in all the charges attending the handling of merchandise at this port.

It seems strange, after noting the decrease in the movement of goods, to find that the tonnage of ships that have visited this port in 1881 is over 230,000 tons more than in 1880.

It is true that the actual number of ships is, on the other hand, nearly 500 less, which confirms the well-ascertained fact that steam is tending to supersede sail here as elsewhere, and as far as this port is more particularly concerned, that such steamships as are attached to Marseilles lines are larger than required by the necessities of trade.

It may be that this unnecessary capacity of the regular line ships is the consequence of the new French law granting premiums according to the size of the vessel, regardless of the quantity of merchandise transported; but the fact remains that the tonnage of goods transported stands to the tonnage of transporting vessels in the proportion of 53½ per cent. only. This same cause is likely to produce even more palpable effects for the future, as, although all the ships ordered in consequence of that law could not be ready before the end of the year 1881, no less than twenty-eight steamships, of an aggregate tonnage of 26,410 tons, have been registered at Marseilles in the course of that year; thirteen sailing vessels have also been added to the list of ships attached to this port, but with the exception of one, measuring 350 tons, they are small, especially intended for harbor service.

Deduction being made of vessels sold, lost, or ripped up, the increase is of seven ships and 12,404 tons on steamships, whereas the sailing vessels show a decrease of five vessels and 6,095 tons, according to the tabular statements herewith:

SAILING VESSELS.

Years.	Harbor service and fishing.		Coasting.		Voyages. In Europe and the Mediterranean.		Voyages. Long sea.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1880	193	779	79	3,047	21	2,224	116	45,286	409	51,336
1881	196	777	88	4,131	24	2,569	96	37,764	404	45,241

STEAMSHIPS.

1880	48	850	15	2,079	122	88,396	45	62,423	230	153,748
1881	45	802	13	1,923	129	90,650	50	72,777	237	166,152

These figures do not seem to show that the law passed in favor of shipping interests in France wrought marked effects at Marseilles, but they give obvious evidence, as they are, of the preference given to steamships, and amongst those to vessels of large dimensions. It must also be remembered that many, indeed most, of the ships ordered in consequence of the above-mentioned law could not be delivered before the end of the year, and consequently do not appear in the returns. At all events, not only do the old-established companies have new ships built, but new lines are being opened, all run or to be run by large and swift steamers.

With regard to the building of new docks at the south end of the city nothing has been decided since the project presented by the government was rejected by the Chambers.

The question, however, has not been dropped, and is supposed to be studied anew, and may shortly be submitted again to the examination of the House of Deputies.

In the meanwhile, the docks and harbors at the north end are drawing nigh their full completion, and the chamber of commerce, which succeeded in obtaining the privilege of furnishing the new wharves with all the necessary means of lading and discharging, propose to establish the latest and best apparatus, some of the members having been sent on a special mission to visit for that purpose all the important ports of Europe.

On the 1st of December, 1881, the new light-house built on the rock of Ilanier, some 7 or 8 miles distant from Marseilles, was inaugurated. The light is electric, revolving, three white flashes followed by a red one, and could be seen from a distance of 48 miles. It is placed at 207 feet over the level of high-water.

COMMERCE.

The only positive basis of a comparison between the years 1880 and 1881 as to general commerce lies in the weight of the merchandise imported and exported, as all is reduced to kilograms, adopted by the French customs as a general and common unit. These are the figures given by official returns for both years:

IMPORTATION.

Articles.	General imports.		Goods on which duties have been paid.	
	1880.	1881.	1880.	1881.
	Kilograms.	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*
Animal matter	105, 861, 652	94, 903, 119	96, 245, 540	84, 746, 846
Vegetable matter	1, 498, 991, 193	1, 454, 414, 753	1, 382, 399, 175	1, 311, 333, 389
Mineral matter	623, 002, 172	606, 914, 806	491, 156, 909	434, 764, 354
All manufactured articles	129, 218, 849	121, 091, 890	95, 420, 593	85, 738, 698
Total	2, 357, 073, 866	2, 277, 324, 568	2, 065, 222, 217	1, 916, 583, 287

EXPORTATION.

Animal matter	38, 259, 327	38, 849, 489	29, 530, 969	29, 038, 850
Vegetable matter	270, 415, 549	310, 754, 880	161, 273, 730	181, 975, 660
Mineral matter	594, 533, 533	628, 413, 774	475, 290, 784	460, 482, 338
All manufactured articles	186, 634, 589	182, 146, 048	147, 491, 171	138, 223, 549
Total	1, 089, 842, 998	1, 160, 164, 191	813, 566, 654	809, 720, 397

A summary inspection of the above tables shows at once a general decrease of the commercial movement at Marseilles in the year 1881, although the difference, being rather in favor of the exports, would tend to show, to that extent at least, an improvement in the balance of trade. It must be observed that this increase arises chiefly from the transit, which does not immediately affect the interest of the business of this port. Besides, as will be seen by the following statements concerning the several and most important branches of the Marseilles trade, prices have been generally low, with a tendency to decline throughout the year:

THE WHEAT AND GRAIN TRADE.

The imports for the year 1881 reached the amount of 644,207,700 kilograms, say 61,148,300 kilograms less than in 1880; but the same decrease has been noted for the general imports in France, owing to the crop being better. Indeed, the proportion of the imports at Marseilles to the general imports, being 29 per cent., whereas in 1880 it was not more than 22½ per cent., has given general satisfaction, more especially as it was attributed to a decline in the American crops, and encouraged the idea that the shipments of wheat from the States to the north of France, which have proved so injurious to the wheat trade in Marseilles, would gradually come to an end.

Great expectations are at the same time built on wheat from the East Indies. This trade, that was but recently engaged in, is bidding fair to come into successful competition to American wheat at Marseilles at least. The imports, which in 1880 barely reached the amount of 35,000 tons, were no less than 121,409 tons in 1881, and could be sold on this market at 25 cents a bushel less than American wheat.

The exports by sea of grain and flour were in advance in 1881, the quantity being 165,644,400 kilograms, nearly 20,000,000 more than in 1880; on the other hand, the exports by rail were 65,000,000 less, and only amounted to 431,115,000 kilograms.

The prices quoted throughout the year were below those paid in 1880, and varied—

For wheat, between 25 and 29 francs per 100 kilograms.

For Indian corn, between 14 and 17 francs per 100 kilograms.

For barley, between 13 and 17 francs per 100 kilograms.

For oats, between 17 and 21 francs per 100 kilograms.

THE SUGAR TRADE.

The reduction of the internal tax on sugar largely increased the home consumption, and at the same time, as it opened a larger field to the trade, it enabled the the importers and refiners to stand under better conditions with foreign competitors as to exportation.

Thus we see that the exports of refined sugar are considerably in advance over the exports for the year 1879, and even 1880, when the reduction above mentioned was brought in force. These are the respective figures:

Years.	By sea.	By land.	Total.
	Kilograms.	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*
1881	35, 658, 679	24, 745, 686	60, 404, 365
1880	32, 658, 731	17, 527, 533	50, 186, 264
1879	35, 610, 539	13, 524, 592	49, 135, 131

The prices were, on the average, the same as 1880, and may be set down at from 55 to 60 francs per 100 kilograms for brown raw sugar; 67.75 francs per 100 kilograms for white raw sugar; 75.25 francs per 100 kilograms for refined sugar.

THE COFFEE TRADE.

The importation for the year 1881 has been unusually large, about 40 per cent. more than the average of the five preceding years. This may have been one of the causes of the steady decline which has been noted in the prices, and reached the rate of 23 per cent. on Rio coffee, that forms two-thirds of the importation. From 81 francs per 50 kilograms, as quoted in the beginning of the year, the price fell to 62 francs. The decline on other coffees averaged 12 francs per 50 kilograms.

The fact has been established that the production largely exceeds the demand, and speculation is gradually giving up the article, so that, unless a reduction of the duties is made on coffee, as on sugar, the prospects are that the trade will be rapidly falling off at this port.

THE COCOA TRADE.

This trade has lost much of its importance at Marseilles since the opening of steamship lines between the producing countries and the north of France, where most of the chocolate factories are located. This deprived Marseilles importers of their principal opening, and for some years past the trade has been at a stand-still, the imports, exports, and stocks on hand remaining almost invariably the same.

Some hopes, however, are entertained of a revival of the trade, owing to the creation of several chocolate factories, and also to the belief that the Transatlantic Company will open a new line between this port and Bahia, which would make Marseilles an important supply market of the article for Mediterranean countries.

THE PEPPER TRADE.

Pepper is one of the few commodities that profited in 1881 by an advance in prices, which averaged from 20 to 25 per cent. The quotations rose from 58 to 70 francs per 50 kilograms for Singapore pepper and from 52 to 60 for Java. The deficient crop in the producing countries appears to have been the only cause of this favorable condition of the trade.

OLEAGINOUS SEEDS.

A decrease of 12,439 tons in the importation of oleaginous seeds and fruits of all kinds is to be noted; it was more particularly occasioned by untimely rains on the west coast of Africa, which reduced in quantity and quality the peanut crop. It is also to be observed that lin, colza, and generally all European seeds are being sent in preference to the north of France and Europe, where they may be disposed of at better rates. On the other hand, the increase of oleaginous seeds from the East Indies and other eastern countries helped to keep up the importance of this branch of trade, and the total amount of imports was second to that of 1880 only, being in all 286,519,500 kilograms, a large proportion of which was crushed in the numerous factories located in and around this city, as shown by the production of oil-cake to the amount of 173,300,000 kilograms. The prices were generally much lower than in 1880, a difference of from 10 to 20 per cent. being noted on every kind.

THE COTTON TRADE.

As the weaving industry does not exist in any shape at Marseilles, the cotton trade is confined to a sort of transit business, which is partly in the hands of a few importers; but most of the cotton that passes through this port is bought directly by the manufacturers on the producing markets. A constant decline in the prices of such quantities as are bought on the exchange at Marseilles has been the general character of the trade. Cotton from the East Indies, that supplies this market with nearly one-half of its general stock, rated at from 50 to 77 francs per 50 kilograms.

THE SILK TRADE.

The year 1881 was, since 1876, the first that gave some satisfaction to the silk trade. Fashion, which always controlled it, restored its favor to pure silk stuffs, and the demands of manufacturers kept up a good current of transactions at fair prices for the importers from the beginning of the year. This favorable condition of the trade was still bettered in June by news of an inferior crop in China, which naturally raised the prices of China silks, always in large stocks here.

The quotations for these silks were from 26 to 43 francs per kilogram in the first three months, and went up to 31 and 50 francs in the last six months. The cocoon and waste trades, for the same reasons, gave the same satisfactory results, and profited by an increase in the sales and prices.

THE WOOL TRADE.

Transactions were rather dull throughout the year, except in the middle and towards the end, when a larger demand revived the trade, but without bringing any notable difference in the prices, which were on the average 10 or 15 per cent. below the quotations of the preceding year. This state of affairs was not likely to encourage importers, and resulted in a difference of 39,640 bales in the importation, with an aggregate of 114,005 bales only.

THE HIDES AND SKINS TRADE.

The movement of importation of the year 1881, compared with that of 1880, gives the following results:

Sheep and goat skins from South America.—Total imports, 3,771 bales; increase, 1,407 bales; goat skins, 41,015 bales; decrease, 1,118 bales; hides, 569,875 pieces; decrease, 42,652 pieces.

The prices have been for sheep and goat skins much lower than in 1880, which turned to the advantage of the tanners, who were enabled to produce and dispose of larger quantities of goods than they had for some years before.

The production of tanned goat-skins was of 414,132 dozen, say 10,662 dozen more than in 1880, and obtained prices slightly in advance, which varied from 3 to 10 francs per kilogram, according to quality.

OLIVE OIL.

The quantities of olive oil of all kinds received in the course of the year, either from foreign countries or the district of Provence, where Marseilles is situated, were as follows:

Lamp oil, 4,770,000 kilograms; increase, 3,470,000 kilograms.

Pulp oil, 6,627,000 kilograms; increase, 2,033,000 kilograms.
Refined oil, 2,250,000 kilograms; decrease, 111,600 kilograms.
Salad oil, 6,120,000 kilograms; increase, 920,000 kilograms.

This enormous increase arises chiefly from the exceptional production of the district, and also of Tunis; unfortunately, the quality, especially that of Provence, was poor, and probably accounts for the great difference in prices, as follows:

	1881, per hundred kilograms.	1880, per hundred kilograms.
	Francs.	*Francs.*
Lamp oil	80 to 87	90 to 102
Pulp oil	51 to 61.25	60.50 to 71.50
Refined oil	73 to 68	71.50 to 86
Salad oil	88 to 150	90 to 170

SEED OILS.

The most important seed-crushing factory of Marseilles was destroyed by fire in the beginning of the year 1881; this circumstance was the only cause of a considerable diminution in the quantity of oil produced, as the balance of trade for the year showed that the importation of oil decreased at the same time as the exportation increased, and consequently that the condition of the seed-crushing industry, the most important at Marseilles, was improving.

The importation amounted to 19,683,000 kilograms, against 24,390,000 kilograms in 1880, and the exportation to 15,269,000 kilograms, a slight advance over 1880, which would most probably have been larger but for the above-mentioned disaster.

As to prices, they were, as for almost all the other articles of trade, below those quoted in 1880.

THE WINE TRADE.

The wine production of France for the year 1881 has been much larger than in 1880, as it amounted to 34,138,715 hectoliters, say an advance of 4,461,243 hectoliters. Still the importation of wine at Marseilles was again larger than in 1880 by 13,203 hectoliters.

It is true that, notwithstanding the increase in the production, it is considerably short of the former average, and that the French population cannot dispense with its customary supply of wine. It is also to be observed that, of all the vineyards of France, those in the south suffered the most from the effects of phylloxera. Still, if it be considered that the novel industry of making wine of raisins, now in full prosperity, if you are to judge by the enormous quantity of raisins, 38,727,783 kilograms, imported in the course of the year 1881, must largely meet the deficiences of vintage, the constant increase of the imports, coinciding with a decrease, even more rapid, of the exports, which amounted to 11,421,147 liters only in 1881 (a difference of 3,000,000 litres in favor of 1880), appears like a strange anomaly in a port the commercial center of a region reputed as a wine-producing country. It is attributed here to the laws regulating the wine trade, and submitting all wines with more than 15 degrees or 15 per cent. of alcohol to a double tax when the degree is not natural to the wine.

The French wine-growers, who are under the constant and jealous watch of excise officers and detectives, find it impossible to raise fraud-

ulently the degree of their wines, whereas Italian and Spanish wines imported here nearly all possess that degree of alcohol which is accepted, for want of proof to the contrary, as natural, and are consequently in great favor with wine merchants, who make an easy gain out of the difference in the tax.

The trade in other branches of liquids offers but small changes. I will simply note a reduction in the imports of alcohol from the United States, although it is detrimental to the commerce of this place alone, as nearly the whole of the quantities are re-exported to other ports in the Mediterranean, which are now taking their supply from the United States direct.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Little remains to be said concerning the other branches of the Marseilles trade, to which the general observation may be applied that the prominent feature of the year 1881 was a slight decline in the importation as well as the exportation, and also a general fall in the prices.

I will only call attention to the remarkable increase of the imports of English coals; they were not more than 38,977 tons in 1872; in 1880 they amounted to 165,523 tons, and in 1881 reached the figure of 216,709 tons.

I will also say a few words concerning such industries as have not been already mentioned in the course of this report.

The soap manufacturing naturally comes first, but with every indication of an unsatisfactory condition, as a decrease is noted both in the production and the exportation of the article, although the low prices of raw materials afforded every facility to the manufacturers for profitable and active business. This state of affairs is generally attributed here to the competition of factories recently created in other parts of France, but it should also be confessed that among the many men who have engaged in the business not a few have shown too great a readiness to sacrifice quality to cheapness, and thereby injured the formerly far-famed name of Marseilles soap.

Flour-mills, on the contrary, have had no reason to complain of the year 1881, as it was marked by an increase in the exports, which amounted to 39,633,800 kilograms, and also by an advance in the prices, in the latter part of the year especially, when the quotations were from 42 to 53 francs per barrel of 122½ kilograms, according to quality.

Special mention should also be made of the brick and tile industry. The soil of all the northern district of Marseilles is entirely formed of a species of clay so well adapted to the manufacturing of that class of clay-work that the numerous factories established in that district can hardly meet the demands that come from all parts of the world.

The year 1881 was also profitable to the mechanical workshops, which were kept in a state of busy activity throughout the year, estimated to have yielded a gross sum of 30,000,000 francs. It will not be surprising to note at the same time that they had to submit to a rise in the prices of iron and in the wages of workmen.

Two other important branches of Marseilles industry—sulphur refining and chemical manufacturing—are struggling with indifferent success, respectively, against Italian and English competition.

The factories established in Sicily derive an immense advantage over the Marseilles factories from their situation on the place of production, and profit by the difference in the cost of transportation of the raw

material. Again, the demand of wine-growers has been considerably reduced in consequence of the progress of phylloxera.

The result for the year 1881 was a decrease of 3,172 tons in the imports of raw sulphur, which amounted to 33,778 tons only, whereas the importation of refined sulphur increased by 483,350 kilograms, and was more than double the total imports of the preceding year.

The chemical manufacturers are also placed under great disadvantage, as the cost of coal, being much less in England, enables their English competitors to offer their goods on foreign and even French markets at rates that leave no margin for profit to the Marseilles products.

With the exception of acids, especially sulphuric and chlorhydric acids, there is not one article in the list of chemicals that could be mentioned as having given satisfactory results in the whole year.

The importation of specie and moneys in 1881 reached the amount of 46,015,792 francs, an advance of 829,437 francs over 1880; the exportation was much less than in 1880, and amounted to 62,955,095 francs—say a difference of 9,602,881 with the year 1880.

H. A. TAYLOR,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Marseilles, September 30, 1882.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF MALTA AND GOZO.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL EYNAUD.

With the exception of articles liable to import duty, the authorities do not require importers to give either values of merchandise entered at our custom-house, nor a specific statement of quantities beyond numbers of packages, nor to present outward manifests for goods shipped from this port; hence, in some respects statistics must be incomplete.

The general trade of these islands was fairly prosperous during the past year.

The importations were large in comparison to other years, but there is every indication that those engaged in trade are obliged to satisfy themselves with small margins of profit.

COAL IMPORTS.

As will be seen by the following statistics, Malta continues to hold her pre-eminent position among the coaling stations in the Mediterranean, and those in this branch of business, it is generally conceded, are doing well. When quarantine was established on arrivals from places afflicted by contagious diseases, the government did not hamper the work of coaling by any unnecessary restrictions, but was more liberal than the authorities at other Mediterranean ports. At the present moment ships are given free *pratique* from all ports in the East, excepting those from the Red Sea ports or when Mohammedan pilgrims are on board.

The importations of coal into Malta during 1881 amounted to 450,955 tons (of 2,240 pounds), all, excepting 70,883 tons, from South Wales; the latter figure was almost entirely from other parts of England and

from Scotland. The total of 1881 is therefore the largest so far, as will be seen by the following table:

	Tons.
1880	374,036
1879	343,803
1878	350,042
1877	246,766
1876	297,787
1875	262,115
1874	323,365

NAVIGATION.

The arrivals in our harbors in 1881 were as follows: 139 British men-of-war and transports; 8 Greek men-of-war; 4 German men-of-war; 4 Dutch men-of-war; 3 Russian men-of-war; 2 Portuguese men-of-war; 1 man-of-war each of the following flags, viz: Austro-Hungarian, Brazilian, Danish, French, Swedish, and Italian; 3,885 merchant steamers, 1,728 merchant sailing vessels; and 51 steam and sailing yachts, all British excepting 1 French; a total of 5,830, against 4,962 in 1880 and 5,043 in 1879.

The merchant steamers arrived in 1881 were—

		Tons.
3,175	British	3,287,296
285	French	148,531
278	Italian	190,581
32	Belgian	36,670
27	German	20,937
23	Norwegian	22,557
21	Greek	16,735
13	Ottoman	3,841
10	Spanish	16,064
7	Danish	6,283
6	Russian	6,780
3	Dutch	3,089
3	Swedish	2,019
1	Chinese	1,284
1	Borneo	58
3,885	steamers	3,681,725

Against a total of 3,105 merchant steamers in 1880, which measured 2,924,807 tons register, and comprised 2,561 under the British flag.

The mercantile sailing vessels arrived in 1881 were—

		Tons.
1,034	Italian	62,965
283	Greek	55,798
197	British	25,717
63	Tunisian	2,354
59	Ottoman	5,160
58	Austro-Hungarian	19,899
11	Russian	2,964
10	Montenegro	979
4	French	573
3	Dutch	557
1	American	936
5	One each of the following: Norway, Germany, Spain, Denmark, and Portugal	1,170
1,728	sailing vessels	179,072

Against 1,669 merchant sailing vessels in 1880, measuring 148,425 tons register.

Among the arrivals of 1881 were 1,075 vessels bound for or coming from eastern ports through the Suez Canal. Of these 11 were men-of-

war, 22 government transports, and 1,042 merchant steamers, these last measuring 1,365,263 register tons, all having on board 37,720 passengers, including military, against a total of 809 mercantile steamers, measuring 1,378,489 tons, 27 men-of-war, 32 transports, 46,289 passengers, which called here in 1880.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

American produce is coming more and more into consumption here, unfortunately, however, not by direct trade, but through British and continental markets, which must to some extent enhance its cost.

American tobacco.—In 1881 the following importations, the growth of the United States, were made, viz:

Whence.	Hogsheads.	Cases.
Purchased in and shipped from—		
England	533	255
United States	230	17
Antwerp	15	.....
France	10	44
Italy	.....	22
Total	788	338

Against 1,076 hogsheads, 195 cases imported in 1880; 1,433 hogsheads, 111 cases in 1879, and 874 hogsheads and 362 cases in 1878.

Of American manufactured tobacco, cavendish, &c., for chewing and smoking, the importations in 1881 were, 1,610 packages bought in and shipped from England, 298 packages bought in and shipped from the United States, 190 packages bought in and shipped from Gibraltar; total, 2,098 packages; also 258 cases of cigars, nearly all of German manufacture, making an aggregate of 2,350 packages, against 2,982 packages (including 228 cases cigars) in 1880, and 2,477 packages of manufactured tobacco and 197 cases cigars in 1879, and a total of 2,162 packages manufactured tobacco and cigars in 1878.

There is no import duty or tax on the sale of any kind of tobacco in Malta. At one time a considerable quantity of American tobacco in leaf was manufactured into cigars of the cheapest description, but this industry has declined, as the total imports of leaf for this year show when compared to former years.

The demand, therefore, although now limited, continues for cheap, sound, Western lugs for fillers and coarse and inexpensive wrapper, both of chestnut and dark-chestnut color.

In American manufactured tobacco and moderate-priced German cigars the trade has been good, being for the supply of the British garrison and the crews of the increasing number of steamers calling here to replenish with coal and provisions.

Petroleum.—This market only takes refined in cases. The stock in depot on January 1, 1880, was 16,669 cases; the importations in 1881 were 93,042 cases; total cases, 109,711. Delivered from 1st January to December 31, 1881, 52,140; in depot on January 1, 1882, 57,571 cases.

The importations in 1881 were all from New York and Philadelphia direct, excepting 5,190 cases from Genoa. The deliveries in 1880 were 46,559 cases, and importations 21,494 cases. In 1877 the importations were 48,480 cases. This trade is being worked just now with little or no profit to importers.

Alcohol.—The importations in 1881 were 726 barrels American, 316 hogsheads and 25 barrels German, or 1,067 packages in all. Of these, 344 barrels were bought in New York and shipped to this port; the remaining American was procured in Marseilles and Italian ports. The importation in 1880 was 717 hogsheads and barrels, and in 1879 from New York alone we received 700 barrels.

Flour.—Not being imported for bread-making, the demand is only from pastry cooks and confectioners and to supply shipping; 2,791 barrels and bags were imported in 1881, nearly all of the finer kind from Marseilles, and a small portion of American from England. In 1880 the quantity entered was 1,971 barrels and bags.

Wheat.—No American comes here, as only hard qualities are used, and these come from neighboring ports and the Black Sea.

Corn.—No American is brought here, and very little of other growth, as the duty paid on it, 18 cents per bushel, is very heavy.

Lard.—One thousand two hundred and twenty-five barrels were imported in 1881, against 1,960 barrels in 1880. All, excepting a very inconsiderable quantity, was American, but bought in England.

Ham and bacon.—Nine hundred and sixty packages were imported in 1881, by far the largest portion being American, against 730 packages in 1880. None, however, came direct from the United States.

Cheese.—The total imported in 1881 was 2,951 boxes, against 2,332 in 1880. These were almost all American manufacture, but procured in English markets.

Salted butter.—In 1881 4,364 firkins were entered, against 2,828 in 1880. Nearly all, however, were Irish made.

Florida water.—Three thousand six hundred and forty-two boxes, of one dozen bottles each, were brought here in 1881, against 1,230 boxes in 1880. All were genuine New York brands, and 3,400 came direct from New York.

Cleaned rice.—The total imports in 1881 was 34,362 bags, 224 pounds each; of these 15,603 bags were from ports in British Burmah direct; 11,740 bags of these direct importations came here for transhipment to other Mediterranean ports. The remainder of the imports in 1881 was Burmah rice from England, and only a very small portion was Italian or Egyptian.

The imports in 1880 were 27,914 bags, in 1879 25,507 bags, and in 1878 21,811 bags. No rice came here from the Southern States of the United States.

Codfish.—Owing to the high range of prices for the catch of 1881, a very small quantity was imported, viz, 1,076 bales, or about 1,200 quintals. These were received mostly from Italian ports. In 1880 from British North America we received 8,785 quintals, and of Norwegian 1,302 quintals arrived.

Of *rosin* and *lumber*, none has been brought here from the United States in 1881, although some years ago a considerable quantity was imported.

EXPORTS FROM MALTA.

Potatoes have become an important branch of agriculture. Two crops are taken, one in winter and the other in spring. The latter is the more important. Last year both crops were almost entire failures for want of seasonable rain. This year the prospects for the spring crops are very good.

Cumin seed, aniseed, squills, oranges, lemons, and orange trees.—The produce of these islands is exported in limited quantities.

Olive oil.—Being an article subject to duty when entered for local consumption, the government receives it from importers into cisterns, charging $1.12 per ton of 300 American gallons for rent per six months and issues warrants for the same.

The government has cisterns of the capacity of upwards of 600,000 gallons. When re-exported no duty is paid.

	Gallons.
In 1877 the quantity received was	560,700
In 1878 the quantity received was	364,200
In 1879 the quantity received was	498,900
In 1880 the quantity received was	329,100
In 1881 the quantity received was	914,100

The large increase last year is attributable to the French invasion of Tunisia, when the oil was sent here for safe custody, and also to the large crops accumulated in 1879–'80.

DIRECT COMMUNICATION BETWEEN MALTA AND THE UNITED STATES.

During 1881 the only arrival under the American flag was a bark of 936 tons, on her way from Trieste to New York. In 1881 eight sailing vessels arrived with cargo for Malta from the United States; seven were Italian and one Austro-Hungarian; four British steamers, five Austro-Hungarian, and four Italian sailing vessels, with cargoes, called here on their way from the United States bound to other ports. Four British steamers, two Italian and one Austro-Hungarian sailing vessels loaded from other ports bound to the United States put into Malta. Ten British steamers and one Italian sailing ship cleared from this port in ballast to load at other ports for the United States.

Besides, by casual opportunities, goods can be shipped to New York and Boston by the French "Transatlantique" Steamship Company via Marseilles, the Florio steamers via Sicily, and via Liverpool by several lines of steamers that call here regularly, bound to the latter port.

Consular invoices were obtained at this consulate for the following goods shipped from this port for New York in the year 1881, viz: 343 boxes dates, 88 bags squills, 299 bags cumin seed, 200 boxes lemons, and 1 hogshead wine.

C. BREED EYNAUD,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Malta.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

BY CONSUL WARNER, OF ST. JOHN.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION AT ST. JOHN.

The total tonnage cleared from this port during the year ending September 30, 1882, amounted to 514,588 tons, being an increase over the year 1881 of 84,079 tons. About three-eighths of the tonnage cleared for the year carried the American flag.

The total exports from St. John for the year ending June 30, 1882, were $4,227,673, being an increase over the year 1881 of $926,162. About 20 per cent. of the exports of 1882 were carried by American vessels.

The total exports from this to ports of the United States were $1,632,334, over one-half of which was carried by American vessels.

The increase of exports to the United States from this port over the year 1881 amounts to $248,063.

Total imports to this port for the year amount to $4,997,734; same for 1881, $4,451,867; of these imports, there came from the United States in 1882, $2,010,851; 1881, $1,522,694, showing an increase of imports from the United States, for the present year, of $488,157.

SHIP-BUILDING.

The record of wooden vessels built during the year ending September 30, 1882, shows 11,345 tons, a falling off of 2,090 tons as against the corresponding year 1881. The decline would be greater but for the increased demand for small vessels to carry lumber, railway ties, and cord-wood to the United States, which has stimulated the building of that class of vessels.

Over one hundred cargoes of cord-wood have been exported from this port to Rockland, Me., for lime-burning. The principal builders of wooden ships in this province are satisfied that the ocean trade from this port must be handed over to steamships, and, acting upon this opinion, a company has been formed. The New Brunswick Steamship Company is composed largely of capitalists of this community, for the purpose of giving to the port an ocean steamship service of their own. The first steamer of the line has been built and placed in service. She is a new steamer built in England, 2,197 tons, and is now discharging freight in this port. She is to be followed by other steamers, as the business of the line demands. The Dominion Government pays $1,500 a voyage for each steamer. They will run between this and the port of Liverpool, touching each way at Halifax, Nova Scotia.

LUMBER.

The shipments of lumber have been large, the manufacturers have realized remunerative prices, and the trade may be said to be in a very prosperous position. The same may be said of the operations in the forests. Large prices have been maintained through the season for logs, yielding to the operators good profits.

The export of lumber from St. John for the year amounts to 247,428,876 square feet, as against 215,720,000 square feet for the year before. The exports of long lumber sent to the United States, under the provisions of section 2508 of the United States Revised Statutes, amounts to 50,185,453 square feet as against 43,946,634 square feet for the year before.

MINES.

There is nothing to report worthy of note in the matter of mines. The only mine paying its stockholders a dividend is the Spring Hill Mining Company's. Its ability to pay dividends is attributable to the fact that the intercolonial railway consumes 100,000 tons of their coal annually. These mines the past year raised about 200,000 tons. Some work is going on in different parts of the province in exploring and developing silver mines, but with no known result to this time. A company is still working in the developing of the anthracite coal mines in Charlotte County, in this province. What it will amount to is hard to tell. The Spring Hill mines have exported to the United States the past year 40,000 tons of slack, which has been of great inconvenience to them heretofore, because useless. It is used in small stationary engines, where perforated plates are used in their furnaces.

FISHERIES.

There are no indications that the interests of the fisheries are to be increased in this city. No new establishments worthy of notice as such have been instituted.

The sturgeon fishing was resumed this summer in the St. John River, the catch being about 900 pounds. The fresh-fish trade was very active, and during last winter great quantities of frozen smelt and bass were shipped to the United States from the north shore of this province. The salmon catch last spring shows a great falling off. None of the salmon fisheries have made as large catches as were made last year. Great fear is entertained that the increased demand for the salmon, and consequent increase of net and seines around the mouths of all salmon rivers, will soon destroy and drive away from us this wonderfully beautiful and valuable fish.

AGRICULTURE.

The agricultural interests of New Brunswick are steadily advancing. The foreign demand for potatoes and other roots has caused a very largely increased production. The crop of roots this year is probably the largest ever raised in the province.

Greater care of live stock and an increased desire for improved breeds are evident. The provincial government last year imported a number of cattle, hogs, and sheep from England and Scotland, and have placed them on a farm near this city. It will be kept and managed as a breeding farm. The increase of young stock on it becoming fit for service will be sold at public auction to the farmers of the province, and in this way increase the interest in improved breeds and demonstrate the advantages from proper care and feeding. It is intended to add horses to the breeding list so soon as the increased production of food on the farm will justfy. The stock now on the farm embraces Short Horn, Durham, Herefords, Ayrshires, Polled Angus, and Polled Norfolk cattle; Cotswold English Leicester, Border Leicester, and Shropshire Down sheep. The fattening of cattle for the English market is engaging the attention of farmers of the province more and more every year. One acre of turnips and mangels will feed two to three steers through the winter and turn them out in the spring fit for the English market.

Statistics of the number of cattle fattened and sent from New Brunswick to England cannot be obtained, but the number is considerable, and increasing each year.

MANUFACTURES.

Manufactures are increasing, especially cotton, owing to the inauguration of the policy of protection by the Dominion Government. The New Brunswick cotton mills have increased their premises and machinery very largely, their production being 30,000 pounds a week. They manufacture gray cottons, shirting, ticking, cotton yarn, carpet warp, bean warp, and ball knitting-cottons. The St. Croix Cotton Company at St. Stephen, New Brunswick, which is just beginning to manufacture, is a very extensive establishment. The building is 100 feet by 517; capital stock, $500,000; capacity of mills, 40,000 spindles, with 700 to 800 looms.

The St. John Cotton Company is now erecting mills in this city, which, when completed, will run 20,000 spindles. It will commence operations this year.

Another cotton mill is under construction at Moncton, New Brunswick.

EMIGRATION.

The tide of emigration from this province to the United States continues about as it has for the past three or four years. Considerable excitement has existed with regard to the Canadian Northwest, and many have gone to that country. Some check should be placed upon this outflow by the provincial government in the way of strong inducements to the farmers and their sons to settle on the wild lands of their native country. The efforts of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and the inducements offered by States and various companies of the United States will leave the province at the end of ten years with a less population than it has to-day.

Detailed statements showing the imports and exports from and to this port, and also the port of St. Stephen, and of the imports and exports to and from the United States, and this and the port of St. Stephen, and return of navigation at this and the port of St. Stephen, all for the year ending June 30, 1882, are herewith transmitted.

D. B. WARNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
St. John, N. B., 1882.

Statement showing the imports at port of St. John, New Brunswick, for the year ending June 30, 1882.

DUTIABLE.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Amount of duties.	Whence imported.
Ale and porter.....gallons..	54, 937	$34, 610	$7, 144 48	Great Britain.
Do .....do....	938	308	94 44	United States.
Horses.....number..	4	240	48 00	Do.
Books, &c	.....	22, 026	3, 750 07	Great Britain.
Do	.....	27, 543	4, 732 70	United States.
Brass, manufactures of	.....	6, 160	1, 734 00	Do.
Do.....	.....	4, 821	1, 106 40	Great Britain.
Rice.....pounds..	527, 968	10, 982	5, 286 40	Do.
Indian corn .....bushels..	10, 866	7, 148	814 98	United States.
Corn meal .....barrels..	32, 501	102, 079	13, 196 20	Do.
Other meal .....do....	2	7	1 12	Great Britain.
Do .....do....	89	663	69 29	United States.
Wheat flour.....do....	5, 177	34, 314	2, 718 00	Do.
Cement.....	.....	3, 362	672 40	Great Britain.
Do.	.....	1, 826	914 60	United States.
Clocks.....	.....	228	79 80	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	2, 226	775 35	United States.
Coal.....tons..	2, 103	4, 173	1, 261 20	Great Britain.
Do .....do....	29, 012	108, 908	12, 120 49	United States.
Coffee .....pounds..	12, 990	2, 252	262 56	Great Britain.
Do .....do....	55, 195	10, 033	1, 706 31	United States.
Do .....do....	1, 810	178	36 20	British West Indies.
Copper	.....	7, 960	844 80	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	1, 638	260 20	United States.
Do.....	.....	296	29 60	British West Indies.
Cordage ....pounds..	68, 545	7, 122	725 00	Great Britain.
Do .....do....	221, 994	29, 039	2, 954 10	United States.
Cottons.....	.....	313, 198	69, 200 68	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	120, 651	20, 722 39	United States.
Drugs.....	.....	21, 936	4, 371 55	Great Britain.
Do	.....	16, 087	3, 511 40	United States.
Do.....	.....	99	19 80	France.
Earthenware	.....	35, 646	8, 749 20	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	4, 690	1, 213 55	United States.
Do.....	.....	1, 571	392 75	France.
Fancy goods.....	.....	108, 543	22, 923 45	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	11, 776	2, 534 35	United States.
Flax, manufactures of	.....	77, 243	15, 284 70	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	10, 857	1, 097 96	United States.
Fruits, dried, and nuts	.....	17, 095	3, 985 05	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	17, 628	4, 220 07	United States.
Fruits, green	.....	3, 341	628 04	Great Britain.
Do.....	.....	35, 933	6, 445 85	United States.

Statement showing the imports at port of St. John, New Brunswick, &c.—Continued.

DUTIABLE—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Amount of duties.	Whence imported.
Fruits, green		$235	$47 00	Spain.
Glass and glassware		10,180	2,430 55	Great Britain.
Do		28,158	7,766 90	United States.
Do		688	189 00	France.
Do		12,947	4,118 40	Holland.
Gunpowder ..... pounds	10,450	2,384	818 80	United States.
Gutta percha		5,383	1,377 05	Great Britain.
Do		30,170	7,650 75	United States.
Hair, manufactures of		1,229	231 60	Great Britain.
Do		1,117	224 20	United States.
Hats		38,465	8,946 00	Great Britain.
Do		24,575	6,168 00	United States.
Iron and hardware		270,329	49,751 71	Great Britain.
Do		231,547	44,356 46	United States.
Leather, and manufactures of		39,837	9,737 40	Great Britain.
Do		18,952	4,509 51	United States.
Marble		58	17 40	Great Britain.
Do		3,285	624 05	United States.
Metals		1,407	353 45	Great Britain.
Do		10,423	2,735 55	United States.
Organs and pianos ..... number	131	16,092	4,909 10	Do.
Oil, kerosene ..... gallons	426,023	48,545	29,008 72	Do.
Oil, other kinds ..... do	40,147	21,914	5,346 90	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	24,538	11,505	2,580 90	United States.
Packages		17,593	2,849 40	Great Britain.
Do		27,103	4,071 60	United States.
Do		2,646	1,039 80	France.
Do		6,895	1,123 00	Holland.
Do		90	29 80	British West Indies.
Paints, &c		13,941	3,020 10	Great Britain.
Do		2,122	455 90	United States.
Paper, all kinds		19,757	5,047 60	Great Britain.
Do		26,181	6,850 05	United States.
Meats ..... pounds	429	218	37 18	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	2,063,518	176,238	18,453 68	United States.
Silks		142,221	41,287 90	Great Britain.
Do		2,671	775 80	United States.
Spices ..... pounds	43,409	7,145	1,662 20	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	13,989	1,282	256 40	United States.
Spirits ..... gallons	52,105	46,184	50,786 79	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	60,289	18,087	3,090 08	United States.
Do ..... do	17,142	30,076	42,251 56	France.
Do ..... do	43,248	17,860	43,681 27	Holland.
Do ..... do	1,512	497	3,992 30	British West Indies.
Wines ..... do	6,969	9,663	8,133 39	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	1,075	698	202 80	United States.
Wines ..... gallons	361	1,921	2,040 39	France.
Do ..... do	5,023	4,419	3,242 63	Spain.
Starch ..... pounds	72,202	4,383	1,400 86	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	3,297	257	65 94	United States.
Sugar, all kinds ..... do	108,563	4,942	3,961 33	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	14,115	522	264 73	United States.
Do ..... do	1,050,830	41,561	5,166 44	British West Indies.
Do ..... do	1,785	96	143 40	Spanish West Indies.
Molasses ..... gallons	421	175	586 40	United States.
Do ..... do	391,094	123,488	15,983 79	British West Indies.
Tea ..... pounds	467,295	95,905	16,554 40	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	46,194	12,387	2,029 67	United States.
Do ..... do	16,717	2,681	2,029 67	China.
Tin and tinware		9,019	842 25	Great Britain.
Do		7,959	2,134 49	United States.
Tobacco, cigars, and snuff ..... pounds	2,057	2,109	1,701 80	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	12,469	15,064	8,206 37	United States.
Do ..... do	997	1,955	1,035 00	Spanish West Indies.
Do ..... do	4,264	3,409	3,336 80	Germany.
Vegetables		1,795	728 50	Great Britain.
Do		14,124	2,850 33	United States.
Wood, manufactures of		5,019	1,504 35	Great Britain.
Do		26,450	7,250 10	United States.
Wool, manufactures of		584,143	143,857 93	Great Britain.
Do		4,612	1,217 84	United States.
Miscellaneous goods		113,560	29,248 56	Great Britain.
Do		148,954	49,032 56	United States.
Do		4,165	941 79	France.
Do		3,895	893 30	Germany.
Do		1,193	160 44	British West Indies.
Total dutiable goods		3,863,261	956,968 87	

Statement showing the imports at port of St. John, New Brunswick, &c.—Continued.

FREE GOODS.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Amount of duties.	Whence imported.
Ores of metals		$18,455		United States.
Salt ..... bushels	311,013	35,407		Great Britain.
Fish, all kinds		13,652		United States.
Lumber		89,064		Do.
Animals		6,574		Great Britain.
Do		8,619		United States.
Agricultural products		66,202		Do.
Cotton, wool, and waste		217,088		Do.
Drugs and colors		29,109		Great Britain.
Do		19,063		United States.
Fishing material		22,501		Great Britain.
Do		17,571		United States.
Junk and oakum ..... cwt	1,666	10,186		Great Britain.
Do ..... do	1,608	6,347		United States.
Metals		333,930		Great Britain.
Do		12,517		United States.
Dominion Government		1,741		Great Britain.
Do		41,167		United States.
Coin and bullion		6,000		Great Britain.
Do		79		United States.
Settlers' effects		1,297		Great Britain.
Do		18,781		United States.
Tea ..... pounds	437,585	99,340		Great Britain.
Coffee ..... do	7,556	2,134		Do.
Tin ..... cwt	3,239	19,524		Do.
Do ..... do	144	3,307		United States.
Zinc ..... do	559	2,847		Great Britain.
Do ..... do	45	187		United States.
Do ..... do	340	1,510		Germany.
Miscellaneous		8,604		Great Britain.
Do		21,292		United States.
Do		23		France.
Do		243		Holland.
Do		112		Australia.
Total free goods		1,134,473		
Total dutiable goods		3,863,261	$956,968 87	
Total free goods		1,134,473		
Total imports		4,997,734	956,968 87	

Statement showing the exports from St. John, New Brunswick, for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value, including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Manganese ore ..... tons	766	$11,255	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	470	8,434	United States.
Salt ..... bushels	27,990	4,007	Do.
Mackerel, pickled ..... barrels	3,558	28,990	Do.
Codfish, dry ..... cwt	2,755	6,777	Do.
Herring—			
Pickled ..... barrels	9,350	28,970	United States.
Smoked ..... pounds	106,548	5,254	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	146,324	11,562	United States.
Do ..... do	2,000	78	British West Indies.
Other pickled fish ..... barrels	796	5,899	United States.
Lobsters in cans ..... pounds	273,958	28,078	Do.
Salmon, fresh ..... do	393,875	58,138	Do.
Fish oil, cod ..... gallons	3,960	1,606	Do.
Fish, all other		126	Great Britain.
Do		63,523	United States.
Do		38	British West Indies.
Firewood ..... cords	9,558	9,872	United States.
Knees and foothooks ..... number	6,325	6,531	Do.
Poles and spars		16,635	Do.
Deals ..... feet	189,890,750	1,849,003	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	27,510,000	276,552	United States.
Do ..... do	19,706,500	201,908	France.
Do ..... do	4,125,500	46,557	Spain.
Do ..... do	456,500	5,391	Holland.
Do ..... do	3,412,750	42,460	Australia.

Statement showing the exports from St. John, New Brunswick, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value, including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Deals ..... feet	1,457,500	$16,179	Africa.
Do ..... do	827,750	9,746	South America.
Laths, pickets, &c ..... M	547	2,792	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	136,606	158,182	United States.
Do ..... do	5	30	France.
Do ..... do	214	894	Australia.
Plank and boards ..... M. feet	2,079	16,975	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	26,199	275,770	United States.
Do ..... do	3,239	43,061	British West Indies.
Do ..... do	2,191	31,655	Spanish West Indies.
Do ..... do	63	379	France.
Do ..... do	94	847	Australia.
Do ..... do	164	2,459	Hayti.
Do ..... do	206	3,280	Canary Islands.
Scantling ..... do	4,281	30,728	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	2,838	26,871	United States.
Do ..... do	73	585	France.
Do ..... do	199	1,470	Spain.
Sleepers and ties ..... number	95,834	20,804	United States.
Shingles ..... M	19,022	88,237	Do.
Do ..... do	94	144	British West Indies.
Timber—			
Birch ..... tons	6,899	49,859	Great Britain.
Pine ..... do	1,044	13,045	Do.
Sugar boxes ..... number	76,072	38,307	Spanish West Indies.
Other woods	.....	229	Great Britain.
Do	.....	15,649	United States.
Do	.....	669	British West Indies.
Do	.....	487	France.
Do	.....	117	Spain.
Horses ..... number	6	4,600	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	471	48,443	United States.
Sheep ..... do	6,308	13,714	Do.
Butter ..... pounds	48,006	8,044	Do.
Eggs ..... dozen	658,576	113,563	Do.
Hides, green	.....	18,575	Do.
Wool ..... pounds	164,877	22,920	Do.
Meats ..... do	105,590	11,753	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	207,595	13,012	United States.
Other animal products	.....	475	Great Britain.
Do	.....	8,307	United States.
Do	.....	780	British West Indies.
Potatoes ..... bushels	82	80	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	249,990	161,149	United States.
Do ..... do	2,930	2,369	British West Indies.
Hay ..... tons	147	1,526	United States.
Do ..... do	265	3,568	British West Indies.
Other agricultural products	.....	34	Great Britain.
Do	.....	2,644	United States.
Do	.....	112	British West Indies.
Carriages ..... number	1	100	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	11	595	United States.
Extract of hemlock bark ..... barrels	1,080	11,410	Do.
Junk, &c ..... cwt	6,123	15,243	Do.
Lime ..... barrels	6,356	3,016	Do.
Machinery	.....	5,596	Newfoundland.
Organs and pianos ..... number	5	320	United States.
Sewing-machines ..... do	18	390	Do.
Molasses ..... gallons	3,932	1,184	Do.
Spirits, all kinds ..... do	30,199	12,055	Do.
Stone, dressed	.....	903	Great Britain.
Do	.....	14,396	United States.
Dulce ..... barrels	285	836	Do.
Wines ..... gallons	782	308	Newfoundland.
Iron and hardware	.....	6,151	United States.
Tea ..... pounds	6,547	1,445	Do.
Ships sold, five ..... tons	4,987	101,440	Great Britain.
Sugar ..... pounds	120,563	5,224	United States.
Manufactures of wood	.....	21,968	Great Britain.
Do	.....	10,027	United States.
Empty casks, &c	.....	3,531	Do.
Settlers' effects	.....	800	Great Britain.
Do	.....	29,586	United States.
Other manufactures	.....	5,459	Great Britain.
Do	.....	13,321	United States.
Do	.....	1,378	British West Indies.
Do	.....	8,089	Newfoundland.
Total exports	.....	4,227,633	

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the imports and exports between St. John, New Brunswick and the United States for the year 1882.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
Ale and porter ..... gallons..	938	$308 00	.....	.....
Horses ..... number..	4	240 00	471	$48,443 00
Sheep ..... do....	.....	.....	6,308	13,714 00
Manganese ..... tons..	.....	.....	470	8,434 00
Salt ..... bushels..	.....	.....	27,990	4,007 00
Fish, all kinds	.....	13,652 00	.....	233,563 00
Books	.....	27,543 00	.....	.....
Brass	.....	1,734 00	.....	.....
Indian corn ..... bushels..	10,866	7,148 00	.....	.....
Corn meal ..... barrels..	32,501	102,079 00	.....	.....
Other meal ..... do....	89	663 00	.....	.....
Wheat flour ..... do....	5,177	34,314 00	.....	.....
Cement	.....	1,826 00	.....	.....
Clocks	.....	2,226 00	.....	.....
Coal ..... tons..	29,012	108,908 00	.....	.....
Coffee ..... pounds..	55,195	10,033 00	.....	.....
Copper	.....	1,638 00	.....	.....
Cordage ..... pounds..	221,994	29,039 00	.....	.....
Cotton goods	.....	120,651 00	.....	.....
Drugs	.....	16,087 00	.....	.....
Earthenware	.....	4,690 00	.....	.....
Fancy goods	.....	11,776 00	.....	.....
Flax, manufactures of	.....	10,857 00	.....	.....
Dried fruits and nuts	.....	17,628 00	.....	.....
Green fruits	.....	35,934 00	.....	.....
Glass and glassware	.....	28,158 00	.....	.....
Gunpowder ..... pounds..	10,450	2,384 00	.....	.....
Gutta-percha goods	.....	30,170 00	.....	.....
Hair and manufactures of	.....	1,117 00	.....	.....
Hats	.....	24,575 00	.....	.....
Iron and hardware	.....	231,547 00	.....	6,151 00
Leather	.....	18,952 00	.....	.....
Marble	.....	3,285 00	.....	.....
Metals	.....	10,423 00	.....	.....
Organs and pianos ..... number..	131	16,092 00	5	320 00
Oil, petroleum ..... gallons..	426,023	48,545 00	.....	.....
Oil, other ..... do....	24,538	11,505 00	.....	.....
Packages	.....	27,103 00	.....	.....
Paints, &c	.....	2,122 00	.....	.....
Paper, all kinds	.....	26,181 00	.....	.....
Meats ..... pounds..	2,063,518	176,238 00	207,595	21,819 00
Silks	.....	2,671 00	.....	.....
Spices ..... pounds..	13,989	1,282 00	.....	.....
Spirits ..... gallons..	60,289	18,087 00	30,199	12,055 00
Wines ..... do....	1,075	698 00	.....	.....
Starch ..... pounds..	3,297	257 00	.....	.....
Sugar ..... do....	14,115	522 00	.....	.....
Molasses ..... gallons..	421	175 00	3,932	1,184 00
Tea ..... pounds..	46,194	12,387 00	6,547	1,445 00
Tin and tinware	.....	7,959 00	.....	.....
Tobacco, cigars, snuffs, &c ..... pounds..	12,469	15,064 00	.....	.....
Vegetables	.....	14,124 00	.....	.....
Wood, manufactures of	.....	26,450 00	.....	10,027 00
Wool and manufactures of	.....	4,612 00	.....	.....
Miscellaneous, dutiable	.....	148,954 00	.....	52,719 00
Ores of metals	.....	18,455 00	.....	.....
Lumber	.....	89,064 00	.....	845,103 00
Wool ..... pounds..	.....	.....	164,877	22,920 00
Animals	.....	8,619 00	.....	.....
Hides	.....	.....	.....	18,575 00
Agricultural	.....	66,202 00	.....	165,319 00
Cotton, wool, &c	.....	217,088 00	.....	.....
Drugs and colors	.....	19,063 00	.....	.....
Fishing material	.....	17,571 00	.....	.....
Junk and oakum ..... cwt..	1,608	6,347 00	6,123	15,243 00
Metals	.....	12,517 00	.....	.....
Goods for Dominion Government	.....	41,167 00	.....	.....
Coin and bullion	.....	79 00	.....	.....
Settlers' effects	.....	18,781 00	.....	29,586 00
Tin	.....	3,307 00	.....	.....
Butter ..... pounds..	.....	.....	48,006	8,044 00
Eggs ..... dozen..	.....	.....	658,576	113,563 00
Zinc	.....	187 00	.....	.....
Miscellaneous, free	.....	21,292 00	.....	.....
Totals	.....	2,010,341 00	.....	1,632,234 00

Flag.	From or to—	ENTERED.						CLEARED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	Great Britain	2	2,388	85	64,499	87	66,887	38	48,869	190	140,541	228	189,410
	United States	77	66,716	866	100,354	943	167,070	1	390	843	72,918	844	73,308
	France			13	9,672	13	9,672	1	1,289	10	5,914	11	7,203
	Spain			1	196	1	196			2	2,095	2	2,095
	British West Indies			9	3,271	9	3,271			20	4,100	20	4,100
	Spanish West Indies			2	651	2	651			12	4,472	12	4,472
	South America			6	3,329	6	3,329			2	899	2	899
	Holland			4	3,394	6	3,394						
	Africa			1	599	1	599			4	2,483	4	2,483
	Australia									2	2,292	2	2,292
	Canary Islands									1	236	1	236
	Newfoundland									2	231	2	231
American	Great Britain			2	2,771	2	2,771			3	5,390	3	5,390
	United States	149	165,817	177	31,690	326	197,507	151	163,598	174	27,669	325	191,267
	Australia									4	3,833	4	3,833
	France			1	1,015	1	1,015						
	British West Indies			3	1,001	3	1,001			1	176	1	176
	Spanish West Indies			1	306	1	306			4	1,553	4	1,553
	Hayti									1	198	1	198
Norwegian	Great Britain			5	2,635	5	2,635			23	12,418	23	12,418
	United States			19	10,266	19	10,266						
	France			3	1,647	3	1,647			13	6,979	13	6,979
	Spain									3	1,631	3	1,631
	Norway			1	580	1	580						
	Portugal			1	650	1	650						
	South America			2	855	2	855						
	Holland									1	468	1	468
	Africa									1	580	1	580
French	United States	3	4,179			3	4,179						
	France							1	1,194	2	544	3	11,738
	Spain							1	1,628			1	1,628
Norwegian	Spanish West Indies			1	339	1	339						
Spanish	do	2	2,678			2	2,678						
	Great Britain							1	1,163			1	1,163
German	do			1	248	1	248			1	248	1	248
Italian	United States			3	1,871	3	1,871						
	Great Britain									1	499	1	499

Swedish	United States			1	515	1	515						
	Great Britain			1	1,047	1	1,047			3	1,904	3	1,904
	France									2	690	2	690
	Spain									2	1,928	2	1,928
Russian	United States			2	1,333	2	1,333						
Austrian	France			1	675	1	675						
	do									3	2,033	3	2,033
	Great Britain									1	640	1	640
Danish	do									1	339	1	339
Holland	British West Indies									1	228	1	228
Haytien	United States									1	256	1	256
United States	Holland			1	1,964	1	1,964						
French	France			2	544	2	544						
Fishing voyage				67	1,233	67	1,233			67	1,233	67	1,233
	Total	233	241,778	1,282	249,150	1,515	490,928	194	218,131	1,401	307,618	1,595	525,749

Statement showing the imports at St. Stephen, New Brunswick, for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Amount of duties.	Whence imported.
Bar and rod iron ..... cwt..	629	$1,252 00	$217 98	United States.
Iron manufactures	.....	61,528 00	15,318 43	Do.
Do	.....	43,109 00	11,069 90	Great Britain.
Oil, kerosene ..... gallons..	21,978	2,356 00	1,319 62	United States.
Molasses ..... do....	6,864	2,141 00	428 20	Do.
Do ..... do....	181,621	52,541 00	7,881 15	Barbadoes, West Indies.
Musical instruments	20	1,536 00	488 10	United States.
Cement ..... barrels..	5,375	6,413 00	2,150 00	Do.
Brick for building ..... M..	2,383	10,847 00	2,179 40	Do.
Woolen manufactures	.....	27,751 00	7,001 26	Great Britain.
Tobacco and cigars ..... pounds..	1,067	1,299 00	894 53	United States.
Linen goods	.....	5,787 00	1,163 76	Great Britain.
Leather and its manufactures	.....	786 00	196 50	Do.
Do	.....	7,416 00	1,809 35	United States.
Coal, anthracite ..... tons..	2,574	9,600 00	1,287 00	Do.
Tea ..... pounds..	7,955	1,321 00	183 52	Do.
Do ..... do	43,072	7,920 00	1,055 98	Great Britain.
Fruits and nuts	.....	9,578 00	1,904 68	United States.
Indian corn ..... bushels..	38,041	27,951 00	2,853 14	Do.
Cotton manufactures	.....	10,083 00	2,211 90	Great Britain.
Do	.....	10,427 00	1,933 92	United States.
Silk manufactures	.....	8,582 00	2,566 35	Great Britain.
Wood manufactures	.....	6,383 00	1,895 00	United States.
Meats and lard	.....	12,441 00	1,371 27	Do.
Flour and meal	.....	8,697 00	810 45	Do.
Carriages	45	2,825 00	847 50	Do.
Laces and braids	.....	4,235 00	852 05	Great Britain.
Sundry minor importations	.....	14,892 00	3,837 80	Do.
Do	.....	23,113 00	5,002 52	United States.
Total dutiable goods	.....	382,810 00	80,731 26	
Sundry free goods	.....	80,176 00	.....	Great Britain.
Do	.....	56,552 00	.....	United States.
Total free goods	.....	136,728 00	.....	

Statement showing the exports from St. Stephen, New Brunswick, for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value, including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Long lumber, viz, boards, plank, deals, joist, &c. M....	20,070	$144,953	United States.
Deals and deal ends ..... do.. ..	1,638	16,620	France.
Do ..... do....	650	8,956	Great Britain.
Boards, plank, and joist ..... do....	1,430	10,010	Do.
Do ..... do....	172	1,872	West Indies.
Laths and pickets ..... do....	15,710	15,312	United States.
Shingles ..... do....	650	1,256	Do.
Clapboards and box stuff.. ..... do....	95	651	Do.
Railroad ties or sleepers	30,000	6,150	Do.
Ship-knees	6,900	5,049	Do.
Hemlock bark ..... cords..	240	1,050	Do.
Bark extract ..... barrels..	2,798	13,640	Do.
Potatoes ..... do....	4,921	2,978	Do.
Eggs ..... cases..	720	6,480	Do.
Molasses ..... gallons..	64,396	18,530	Do.
Tea ..... pounds..	4,932	940	Do.
Coal ..... tons..	323	1,087	Do.
		255,534	

Abstract of vessels that entered and cleared at the port of St. Stephen, New Brunswick, for the year ending June 30, 1882.

ARRIVED.

Nationality.	No.	Rig.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Where from.
United States	38	Schooner	1,757	103	United States.
Sweden	1	Bark	734	18	Do.
Norway	1	...do	807	14	Holland.
Do	3	...do	1,079	33	Great Britain.
Great Britain	2	...do	972	25	Do.
Dominion	5	Schooner	877	34	Barbadoes, W. I.
Do	14	...do	1,462	67	United States.
Total arrived from foreign ports	64		7,688	289	

RECAPITULATION.

From—	No.	Tonnage.	Crew.
United States	53	3,953	183
Great Britain	5	2,051	58
Holland	1	807	14
West Indies	5	877	34
Total	64	7,688	289

NATIONALITY.

United States	38	1,757	103
Dominion	19	2,339	101
Great Britain	2	972	25
Norway	4	1,886	47
Sweden	1	734	13
Total	64	7,688	289

Arrived coastwise from ports in the Dominion: 190 schooners and sloops, 6,349 tons, 450 men.

Abstract of vessels cleared at the port of St. Stephen for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Nationality.	No.	Rig.	Tons.	Men.	Where for.
United States	36	Schooner	1,574	95	United States.
Dominion	17	...do	1,635	78	Do.
Do	1	...do	198	7	West Indies.
Sweden	1	Bark	734	12	France.
Norway	3	...do	1,128	32	Do.
Do	1	...do	807	15	Great Britain.
Great Britain	1	...do	427	8	France.
Total departed, foreign	60		6,498	242	

RECAPITULATION.

For—	No.	Tonnage.	Crew.
United States	53	3,209	168
France	5	2,289	52
West Indies	1	198	7
Great Britain	1	807	15
Total	60	6,498	242

Abstract of vessels cleared at the port of St. Stephen, &c.—Continued.

NATIONALITY.

For—	No.	Tonnage.	Crew.
United States	36	1,574	95
Dominion	18	1,828	89
Great Britain	1	427	8
Norway	4	1,935	47
Sweden	1	734	12
Total	60	6,498	242

Departed for Dominion ports coastwise: 198 schooners and sloops, 7,963 tons, 496 men.

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF MESSINA.

REPORT, DATED SEPTEMBER 20, 1882, BY CONSUL OWEN.

The trade within this consular district during the year ending December 31, 1881, shows a remarkable increase when compared with the year previous.

Imports.—The total value was $8,791,360, while in 1880 it amounted to $7,699,949, an increase of $1,091,411, chiefly due to an unusual importation of cotton and woolen goods, rice, and iron.

Exports.—They were valued at $10,291,898, exceeding those of the year before by $1,487,413, due to a greater exportation of green fruit, essences, wine, tartars, and other staples.

Navigation.—The total tonnage entered was 1,414,469, cleared 1,390,728, against 1,288,530 entered and 1,250,370 cleared in 1880. In this connection I regret to have to state that a falling off is yearly experienced in the arrival of American vessels. In fact, in the year 1880 there entered 6 vessels, measuring in the aggregate 2,447 tons, while in the year 1881 there arrived only 2, together 1,017 tons.

Return of trade.—The only article imported from the United States was refined petroleum, valued at $73,240. The exports thither were estimated at $1,634,152, of which $1,093,762 are represented by green fruits, lemons, and oranges, an excess in value of $99,734 over the year 1880.

Agricultural interests.—The yield of the crops in general, although less abundant than those of 1880, was large enough to meet all demands.

I regret to state that the measures adopted by the government to stamp out the phylloxera, the appearance of which was noted in my last report, have so far proved inefficient. During the years 1880 and 1881 no less than $48,100 worth of vines were destroyed, in some cases entailing a great loss to the proprietors, who relied on their vineyards for support.

AGENCIES.

Catania.—The imports amounted to $3,246,374, an increase of $910,305, and the exports to $4,081,050, a decrease of $1,628,551 as compared with the year previous. This falling off is due to the poor harvest.

Syracuse.—The imports were valued at $198,698, and the exports at $778,523.

Milazzo imported goods to the amount of $404,159, and exported merchandise to the value of $524,853.

GEORGE H. OWEN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Messina, September 20, 1882.

Statement showing the imports at Messina for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value entered.	Amount of duties.	Whence imported.
Books ..... kilograms..	1,756	$2,019	$38	Different countries.
Bran ..... do....	86,474	2,100	140	Russia, Turkey.
Beer	.....	1,175	17	Austria, Germany, England.
Basket-work	.....	930	75	Germany, Italy.
Coffee ..... kilograms..	268,828	105,510	49,210	America, East Indies.
Chemical products ..... do....	17,420	1,643	37	Different countries.
Cocoa ..... do	4,853	2,289	780	Do.
Cheese ..... do....	58,659	23,242	885	Do.
Copper and brass ..... do....	112,218	45,924	2,200	Do.
Coal ..... do....	45,065,674	2,805,976	Free	England, France.
Colors ..... do....	23,551	43,337	482	Do.
Candles, stearine ..... do	18,892	6,950	534	France, Austria.
Cod and stock fish ..... do....	1,438,062	135,700	18,570	Denmark, North America.
Cotton texture ..... do....	744,165	732,440	127,620	England, France, Germany.
Cotton galloons ..... do....	10,146	18,940	2,000	Do.
Cotton velvet ..... do....	11,380	32,200	3,210	Do.
Cotton, spun ..... do....	430,503	247,726	22,795	Do.
Crystal and glasswares ..... do....	295,740	39,110	4,980	France, Austria, Germany.
Casks, empty	.....	13,000	Free	Italy.
Confectionery	515	200	68	Do.
Dyestuffs ..... kilograms..	2,674,888	151,423	Free	Different countries.
Earthenwares ..... do....	46,291	17,611	1,900	Do.
Essences ..... do....	1,742	8,775	492	Italy.
Flour ..... do....	1,704,878	144,753	8,910	France, Russia.
Fruit, green and dry ..... do....	16,520	1,925	60	Italy.
Firewood ..... do....	250,000	1,500	Free	Do.
Furniture	.....	3,000	150	Do.
Gold and silver coin	.....	213,960	Free	Do.
Grease of all kinds ..... kilograms..	60,834	14,000	100	Do.
Hemp goods ..... do...	139,883	15,540	1,978	Different countries.
Hats	.....	12,070	1,920	England, France, Italy.
Iron rails ..... kilograms..	1,698,076	8,370	1,000	Do.
Iron, worked ..... do....	3,626,586	327,560	38,510	Do.
Iron wire ..... do....	172,423	15,500	2,400	Do.
Iron plates ..... do....	67,833	8,700	900	Do.
Iron ore ..... do....	480,113	17,450	800	Do.
Indigo ..... do	846	2,794	10	Do.
Iron tools	.....	36,000	3,900	Do.
Jewelry	.....	8,590	126	France, Switzerland.
Lead ..... kilograms..	131,057	11,300	120	England, France.
Linen	.....	41,260	4,780	Holland, France, England.
Liquors	.....	14,100	2,270	Different countries.
Linseed oil ..... kilograms..	87,824	17,540	1,000	Do.
Machinery	.....	31,335	1,700	Do.
Mercery	.....	71,450	4,230	Do.
Medical articles ..... kilograms..	10,707	4,510	336	Do.
Paper ..... do	15,054	2,760	396	Do.
Pepper and pimento ..... do....	39,425	26,310	5,200	Do.
Petroleum ..... do....	1,273,902	73,240	79,320	America.
Rice ..... do....	4,417,935	308,445	Free	Different countries.
Resin ..... do	502,269	180,635	2,550	Do.
Stones, not specified ..... do....	661,162	13,440	Free	Italy.
Spices ..... do....	198	120	90	East Indies.
Sugar ..... do....	451,739	59,890	56,380	Holland, France, Italy.
Skins, raw and dressed ..... do....	876,546	467,200	2,460	Russia, Algiers.
Steel, in bars ..... do....	159,993	25,660	3,015	England, France.
Silk goods	.....	41,270	4,910	Do.
Seeds ..... kilograms..	95,798	9,500	Free	Different countries.
Starch ..... do....	13,256	1,900	79	Do.
Tin, in bars ..... do....	17,861	8,800	260	Do.
Timber	.....	164,280	Free	Austria.
Woolen goods ..... kilograms..	101,777	250,005	30,750	Different countries.
Wine	.....	8,960	560	France, Germany.
Wheat and other grain .... kilograms..	22,497,811	1,192,100	57,300	Russia, Turkey.
Wax	.....	2,544	119	Spain, Italy.
Other articles	.....	492,674	41,928	Different countries.
Total	.....	8,791,360	581,550	

Statement showing the exports from Messina for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value, including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Almonds ..... kilograms..	2,537,980	$325,737	France, England, United States, Germany.
Brimstone ..... do ...	922,127	18,798	Do.
Bran ..... do	36,982	1,345	Italy.
Basket-work ..... do ...	490	62	Do.
Bones ..... do	255,000	9,400	England, Holland.
Chemical articles ..... do	31,481	4,578	Italy, France.
Capers, salted and pickled ..... do	30,955	6,790	Egypt, Austria, Italy.
Cheese ..... do	3,066	1,169	Italy, United States.
Chestnuts ..... do	134,597	5,860	United States, France, Italy.
Casks, empty ..... capacity, hectoliters..	*119,551	132,834	Italy, France.
Dyestuffs, ground and unground ... kilograms..	162,081	8,100	Italy.
Essential oils ..... do	345,923	1,793,675	Different countries.
Fruit:			
Green, not specified ..... do	89,066	2,474	Do.
Lemons and oranges ..... boxes..	1,120,000	1,806,841	Do.
Lemons and oranges, salted ..... kilograms..	49,500	5,041	Do.
Dry, not specified ..... do	101,683	22,865	Do.
Fish, salted ..... do	107,226	17,000	Austria, Italy.
Filberts ..... do	2,537,980	311,053	Different countries.
Forage ..... do	22,087	500	Italy.
Furniture	.....	700	France, Austria.
Hats	.....	425	Italy.
Hair of all kind ..... kilograms..	52,266	29,003	Different countries.
Herbs, flowers, and leaves ..... do	9,444	1,900	Do.
Juice of lemon, raw and concentrated .... do ...	1,600,294	412,900	Do.
Juices not specified ..... do	147,744	22,520	Do.
Licorice root ..... do	12,780	980	Do.
Mustard seed ..... do	52,720	5,000	Do.
Manna ..... do ...	43,060	34,450	Do.
Maccaroni ..... do	9,388	1,000	Do.
Medical articles ..... do	572	220	Do.
Manure ..... do	141,200	2,485	Do.
Orange peels, salted	.....	1,000	Do.
Olive oil ..... kilograms..	6,090,130	1,691,700	Do.
Potatoes ..... do	87,510	1,700	Italy.
Pistachio kernels ..... do	12,251	10,209	Different countries.
Pumice stone ..... do ..	336,332	6,300	Do.
Silk	.....	1,117,225	Do.
Spices ..... kilograms..	7,568	800	Do.
Seeds ..... do	500,107	46,308	Do.
Skins ..... do	144,897	67,285	Italy.
Timber for building ..... do	561,500	11,438	Do.
Tartars ..... do	3,520,163	847,445	Different countries.
Wine ..... hectoliters..	159,834	887,960	France.
Wooden hoops ..... kilograms..	1,155,643	129,080	Italy.
Different articles. ..	.....	487,743	Different countries.
Total	.....	10,291,898	

Statement showing the imports and exports between Messina and the United States for the year 1881.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
Argols	.....	.....	.....	$24,059
Almonds	.....	.....	.....	6,300
Brimstone	.....	.....	.....	13,800
Canary seed	.....	.....	.....	29,368
Essences	.....	.....	.....	329,765
Fruit	.....	.....	.....	1,093,762
Filberts	.....	.....	.....	87,108
Lemon juice	.....	.....	.....	13,243
Olive oil	.....	.....	.....	17,097
Petroleum	.....	$73,240	.....	.....
Soap stock	.....	.....	.....	10,208
Wine	.....	.....	.....	6,571
Miscellaneous	.....	.....	.....	2,861
Total	.....	73,240	.....	1,634,152

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Messina for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Flag.	From or to—	ENTERED.						CLEARED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
United States	Italy, United States			2	1,017	2	1,017			3	1,520	3	1,520
Austrian	Italy, Austria, United States			19	7,418	19	7,418			19	7,418	19	7,418
British	England, United States, Austria, Italy, Greece	368	318,897	44	6,922	412	325,819	365	316,190	39	5,700	404	321,890
Danish	Denmark, United States, Italy, Russia	14	9,988	12	1,680	26	11,668	13	9,400	10	1,400	23	10,800
Dutch	do	29	21,717	2	289	31	22,006	26	19,470	2	289	28	19,759
French	France, Turkey, Egypt, Italy	168	148,748	6	688	174	149,436	167	148,000	6	688	173	148,688
German	Germany, Russia, Italy	43	35,471	6	942	49	36,413	42	35,000	4	620	46	35,620
Greek	Greece, Italy, Turkey	6	3,395	274	57,664	280	61,059	6	3,395	260	54,724	266	58,119
Norwegian	Norway, United States, Italy, Russia, Germany	13	4,757	16	5,359	29	10,116	10	3,659	10	3,355	20	7,014
Russian	Russia, Italy, France	9	5,799	8	1,974	17	7,773	9	5,799	7	1,800	16	7,599
Swedish	Sweden, Norway, Italy	11	6,157	2	529	13	6,686	11	6,157	2	529	13	6,686
Samian	Turkey, Black Sea			5	869	5	869			5	869	5	869
Turkish	Turkey, Egypt, Greece			18	2,919	18	2,919			16	2,700	16	2,700
Italian	Italy, France, England, United States, India, Egypt, Turkey	988	635,420	223	52,546	1,211	687,966	978	628,990	190	50,956	1,168	679,946
Do	Coasting trade			2,358	83,304	2,358	83,304			2,300	82,100	2,300	82,100
	Total	1,649	1,190,349	2,995	224,120	4,644	1,414,469	1,627	1,176,060	2,873	212,668	4,500	1,390,728

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES OF VENICE.

ANNUAL REPORT FOR THE YEAR 1881, BY CONSUL NOYES, ON THE COMMERCE, NAVIGATION, MANUFACTURES, AGRICULTURE, PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS, POPULATION, FOOD CONSUMPTION, EMIGRATION, &c., FOR THE CONSULAR DISTRICT OF VENICE. DATED OCTOBER 7, 1882, AND RECEIVED AT THE DEPARTMENT OCTOBER 30, 1882.

The movement of affairs in Venice in 1881 has been but slightly in advance of that of preceding years. Even the recent conquests of international communication, such as the Alpine tunnels and the Suez Canal, have not benefited her as her geographical position would seem to warrant; a fact owing perhaps to the superior wealth and enterprise of her special rivals, and, in the case of Genoa, to the greater vicinity of the Alpine passes, and the profusion of public and private liberality in the improvement of her port; while the dilatory measures applied to that of Venice barely serve to keep it open to the larger class of ships now employed in foreign commerce.

Yet, in spite of these drawbacks, navigation has slowly increased during the last ten years, changing in character to suit the requirements of the age from sail to steam, as will be seen in a few prominent data, cleared of detail, drawn from the annexed tables.

NAVIGATION.

The whole number of entries in 1872 was 2,895; in 1880, 2,537; and in 1881, only 2,480; but along with this decline in the number of ships the augmentation in the relative number of steamers as well as in gross tonnage was equally constant and much more rapid, being for tonnage but 435,982 in 1872, against 538,650 in 1880 and 662,273 in 1881, while we find, in 1880, 1,890 sail of 127,990 tons and 647 steamers of 480,660 tons, against 1,751 sail of 133,032 tons and 720 steamers of 569,241 tons in 1881. It should be observed also that the decrease in the number of entries is entirely at the expense of sailing vessels, largely consisting of the nondescript craft of the Dalmatian, Greek, and Italian coasts, hardly of a size to be classed as ships, and representing for a given number of entries but an insignificant capacity and tonnage. Another feature of this transformation in the movement of the port is the increasing number of line steamers of considerable size which frequent it regularly. Besides the Austrian Lloyd of ancient date, the Cunard and Leyland lines communicate with Liverpool; there are monthly steamers to London and Hull; while regular departures of the General Society of Italian Navigation (a recent fusion of the well-known lines of Florio and Rubattino) connect Venice with the Levant and the far east. The weekly voyages of the ships of the Peninsular and Oriental Company to Alexandria and Bombay have long since become a part of the ordinary routine of the port. For all these ships, however, full cargoes are not always at hand, particularly on the outward voyage.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The trade of the port, as well as its navigation, has slightly exceeded that of the past year and the average of the preceding ten years, with a constantly growing excess of imports over exports. Thus we find—

	Imports.	Exports.
1872	$38,602,545	$29,200,375
1880	42,131,216	35,948,854
1881	46,281 171	35,267,044

Here, it will be observed, while the most striking difference from the returns of the preceding year is found in the advance of $4,247,104 in imports, exports have fallen $700,000 below those of the same period.

In surveying the general commerce of Venice we find a surplus of $907,336 of cotton imported entirely from Egypt, together with a proportional augmentation in receipts of wool, both due to the regular development of manufacturing enterprise, while the sudden stride in imports of rough and wrought metals from $696,414 in 1880 to $1,759,247 in 1881 is explained by the abnormal quantities of iron required in executing the immense scheme of railway construction recently voted by Parliament.

In exports there has been a notable advance in hemp from $1,287,645 to $1,573,359, balanced by a reduction from $1,332,048 to $845,559 in exportations of grain. Of the proper staples of Venice, glassware showed a decline in exportation from $1,074,475 to $1,015,438, due probably, like most variations in this article, to the caprices of fashion; while the falling off in shipments of lumber from $717,527 to $629,001, the greater part of which has gone latterly to supply the growing demand in Egypt, may be owing to the political disturbances of the year in that country.

One of the important factors in the growing prosperity of Northern Italy during the past ten years has been the exportation of its dairy produce, poultry, fruit, and cattle to supply the insatiable demand of the wealthier and more luxurious countries which surround it; but as these commodities take the nearest land transportation across the wide circle of the Alpine frontier, it is extremely difficult to obtain returns either complete or exact. What approximative data it has been possible to collect regarding their production in the Venetian territory are grouped with the notices of the agriculture of the region.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Another variation interesting us more nearly is the sudden and extraordinary development of exports to the United States from $7,085 in 1880 to $62,346 in 1881, accompanied by the hardly less extraordinary contraction of imports from $2,103,945, to $1,045,484, or less than one-half.

The explanation is easily found, in the first case, in the growing taste for travel, as well as for objects of art and curios, among Americans. Shipments of such objects to the United States the past year amounting to a value of $17,667 against $1,444 in 1880, which, with an entirely novel exportation of sulphur, amounting to $38,610, constitutes very nearly the difference in question. The decline in imports from the United States is not more difficult to explain; two unusually abundant years having rendered unnecessary the large quantity of Indian corn, $1,101,965, introduced in 1880. During the past year, also, a duty virtually prohibitive was laid on cotton-seed oil; this article, of which more than half the whole supply was drawn from the United States, was used for a general adulteration of olive oil. The result was an immediate fall in importations of $279,905; and the simultaneous increase of importations of pure olive oil from all sources to the amount of $2,168,649 is significant enough.

The importation of petroleum has not yet regained its normal level after the check caused by the considerable elevation of the duty on it, showing only a value of $457,176 against $364,599 in 1880, $625,702 in 1879, and $976,332 in 1877.

MANUFACTURES OF VENICE.

In a special report addressed to the Department in the earlier part of this year, I had the honor of submitting what detailed information I found attainable in regard to the cotton and woolen manufactures of the Venetian territory. (Published in No. 23, Cotton and Woolen Mills of Europe.)

Glass works.—Next in importance come the glass manufactories of Venice and Murano, of which the Department is in possession of data demanded and furnished more recently. The mosaic works, dispersed among numerous laboratories and often in the domiciles of single artists, are difficult to reduce to statistical classification, and are included in official publications under the head of glassware or of objects of art, and are only known as such in commercial statistics. They have been alluded to in those groups above. The well-known house of Neville & Co., for the manufacture of cast-iron bridges, locomobiles, agricultural machines, &c., has also been often mentioned in successive reports, and offers no new development to call for notice at present.

Cotton mills.—The industrial event of capital interest for Venice at present is the formation of a joint stock company, composed of the largest and most enterprising capitalists of Northern Italy, who, attracted by the facilities of transportation and the superabundance of cheap labor here, commenced the establishment of a cotton mill founded with a capital of $1,930,500, and to contain eventually 100,000 spindles. By arrangement with the municipality they have obtained the cession of a tract of unoccupied land at the western extremity of the city, heretofore used as a field for the military exercises of the garrison, and are now proceeding actively with the foundations of the first group of buildings, to contain 25,000 spindles, as a tentative and model for the organization of the whole project. The establishment is contiguous to the maritime railway station, and will enjoy the same extraordinary facilities for unloading and discharging from shipboard on to the platforms of the establishment, and from these to the tracks of the Alta-Italia Railway. Of course the establishment must forego the invaluable resources of water-power, which are the peculiar privilege of Northern Italy for industrial purposes, but the location and command of the collected mass of unemployed labor may compensate this disadvantage, and if successful it will be a providential institution to suffering thousands for whom no sufficient occupation has heretofore seemed possible. It is the intention of the directors to draw their apprentices and operatives in part from the orphan asylums and houses of correction, male and female, of the city, and already a certain number of machines have been placed in those establishments for the purpose of affording the inmates a preparatory training.

Railway carriage factory.—The abandoned buildings and garden of a suppressed convent of very ancient foundation, at the eastern or seaward extremity of the city, on the small island of Sant Elena, well remembered by tourists as one of the most romantic features of Venice, is now nearly transformed into a factory for railway carriages. The "Venetian society for public contracts and constructions," another of the industrial phenomena of the region, of potent capital and organization, and whose name explains its nature, has obtained this concession also from the municipality to the regret of the lovers of picturesque antiquity, and is pushing the works rapidly. The contract with the city grants them the use of the island on a long lease of forty years, at a rent nominal at first and augmented with each ten years of occupation.

On the side of the island looking toward the public gardens at this extremity of the city proper, some hundreds of yards of shoal water, latterly becoming marshy, have been reclaimed at the same time, and will be connected with the public gardens by a bridge. A tract of open ground forming the extremity of Venice seaward in the same direction will be also extended at the expense of the shallows beyond for the future exercises of the garrison.

Manufacture of glass bottles.—Another enterprise specially suited to the traditions of Venice is to be implanted on the neighboring island of Murano, for which a company has likewise been formed. The island is famed for its glass fabrics, in which the population of 12,000 or 14,000 inhabitants have been occupied from the earliest times, but exclusively in objects of art, never heretofore for products of common utility—always a surer source of revenue than those required only as objects of luxury and dependent for a market on the taste and fashion of the day. In this respect the enterprise, if successful, will be a beneficent institution of the kind most needed here.

The manufacture of tobacco, affording steady employment to some 3,000 operatives, mostly women and girls, is of long standing, and all important data regarding it have already been consigned in previous reports.

The principal industry remaining, where a large number of the population find employment, is—

Ship-building, a constantly recurring subject also, but of much more varying activity, and now a point of interest for naval science, since one of the new group of Italian iron-clad ships is now in construction here. On the 31st of July of the present year (1882) was launched here the *Amerigo Vespucci*, one of a group of three sister ships of which the *Flavio Givia* was launched at Castelamare in the summer of 1881, and the third is still in construction and nearly ready to be launched in the same navy-yard. The Vespucci is a dispatch-boat.

Length between perpendiculars	meters..	78.00
Breadth	do....	12.75
Mean immersion	do....	5.19
Displacement	tons..	2,533
Force of engine	horse-power..	5,000

Beyond the industrial foundations mentioned above, no considerable enterprise has been attempted by private capital, since the failure of the Adriatic Navigation Company, some 15 years since. During the past year, however, the idea of a new line of second-class steamers to the Adriatic ports and Ionian islands has been agitated, but finds little support. Another novelty has met with unexpected success, and changed the characteristic aspect of the city by the busy movement of numerous diminutive steamers plying in the grand canal and harbor. The Venetians appreciated at once the unwonted convenience which has entered into the habits of the place, and promises to be an excellent speculation. Projects are rife for extending it to the neighboring islands, as well as to the towns and inlets of the mainland. It is the enterprise of a company of French capitalists.

The unusual beauty of the season has caused a very extraordinary affluence of sea-bathers, as many as 3,000 having used the bathing establishment in one day. It seems not amiss to mention this feature of the place, which, with the concourse of tourists, forms an important part of its revenue.

PORT AND LAGOON OF VENICE.

The one great subject of discussion, of experiment, and of constant apprehension, the condition of existence for Venice, and the key to her history, is her port. Its preservation is a never-ceasing combat with the forces of nature, and a compromise with conflicting interests with the dwellers on the mainland; for every provision to repel the invading watercourses from the lagoon, crowds back drainage, malaria, and inundation on the surrounding plain. The science and history of the Venetian lagoon form a subject of extraordinary interest, which cannot be entered into here. Gradually it has silted up in spite of all efforts, leaving only a few narrow and sinuous channels from the sea to its numerous islands and to the mainland. The principal of these channels some eight miles in length from the main entrance through the bar or "Lido" to Venice, is the only one navigable for ships, and to keep this free from the constant deposits is a ceaseless care. For this purpose, under Napoleon I, long breakwaters were carried out to sea, that the tide, confined between them, might by its accelerated movement excavate its channel. This succeeded for a distance at the entrance, but lost its effect within the lagoon, where constant dredging is necessary to supply its action. This channel at its normal depth of 7 to 8 meters is no longer sufficient for the class of ships now employed in commerce, or for the ironclads to be constructed in the arsenal. A sum of $136,130 has been appropriated for the purpose of dredging it to the uniform depth of 9 meters (29 feet 3 inches.)

The works were commenced on the 1st of July last and are to be completed in three years. There is another entrance from the sea very near and nearly opposite the city, which has heretofore been neglected, and only used by small fishing-craft and by the second class steamers of the Lloyd from Trieste; but to prevent all the internal channels north of Venice from being completely filled up, it has become necessary to deepen this also, and a breakwater was commenced during the past year, which from the northern shore of this entrance or "Porto del Lido," will be carried in a slightly curved line for 3,300 meters out to sea; the action of the tide along it will rapidly deepen the channel to 7 meters. This improvement will greatly facilitate the approach to Venice, but precisely for this reason it is not regarded with favor by naval officers and engineers; the more so that the arsenal lies at the extremity of Venice which projects toward this entrance.

At the point of entering the basin proper of the city, the present deep-water channel turns suddenly and at an acute angle round the point of a shoal, "Puntarolo di San Marco," stretching on the south of the basin along the city front. This passage is difficult for ships of unusual length, and next year it is intended to remove the point, an operation which has to be renewed every few years, as the shoal tends constantly to reform itself.

In addition to the five light-houses existing on the "Lido," an appropriation of $13,514 has been made for the establishment of a "sirena," or steam fog-trumpet, attached to the light-house on the outer extremity of the northern breakwater at the entrance of Malamocco. This will be accomplished in the course of the coming year.

Brenta River.—For many years a subject of anxious discussion here, as well as at Chioggia, has been the removal of the river Brenta from its present bed opening into the southern extremity of the lagoon, where its detritus has rapidly rendered the entrance and port of Chioggia difficult even for the small fishing craft which frequent it. A law has

finally been passed for changing its course near the mouth, and forcing it to empty into the open sea at the "Conca di Brondolo" beyond the southern junction of the Lido with the main land. No measures have as yet been taken for the execution of these works, and there exists a growing irritation on the subject among the inhabitants of Chioggia to whom the present situation becomes each day more intolerable. When this improvement is effected, the last disturbing element will have been removed from the port and lagoon. The constantly recurring complaints and dissensions arising from abusive drainage on the part of the surrounding land-owners must still subsist. They are part of the essential conditions of the province, and to balance the thousand claims of conflicting interest, and reconcile them with the paramount necessity of defending the one great source of prosperity for the whole region, forms the most difficult part of its intricate economy, as well as a fertile source of litigation before the local tribunals.

MARITIME RAILWAY STATION.

In the same connection, as supplementary to the port of the city, should be mentioned the maritime railway station, where ships are brought directly under the cranes and against the quays of the Alta Italia Railway. Commenced in 1868, retarded and falling in in parts from the unreliable nature of the soil, and finally opened to traffic on January 1, 1880, it is not yet completed. It consists at present of a basin 750 meters in length, 70 meters wide, and 8 deep, bordering a quay on which stand five warehouses of one story, with an area of 50 by 30 meters each. It is contiguous to and only divided by a bridge from the passenger and general station, and is in connection with it by branch tracks. It is daily more frequented and more useful, while the works for its completion, for which an appropriation of $241,312 has been made, are actively prosecuted. The basin will be immediately enlarged to the width of 140 meters, but the construction of additional warehouses on its other bank, and the final completion of the station, will depend on the necessities of traffic. The work is prosecuted at the joint expense of government and of the Alta Italia Railway Company.

AQUEDUCT.

Another public work of vital interest to Venice is the aqueduct now in course of construction. Mention has been made in previous reports of a contract for this purpose with Messrs. Rittervandt & Dalgarius. These gentlemen delayed fulfillment and finally ceded their undertaking to a French company, "La compagnie desaux por l'etranger," who are now carrying it forward with every prospect of early completion. The water supply is drawn from the Brenta at Stra, a village 16 miles from Venice, and conducted by a canal of 6 kilometers to Dolo, where it falls into the already existing canal, la "Seriola," which has supplied the cisterns of Venice from the time of the republic. This reaches the lagoon at Morangani, 14 kilometers from Dolo and 20 from the point of derivation. Here will be constructed a large filtering basin, from which the great trunk pipe, diameter 80 centimeters laid on the bottom of the lagoon, will conduct the water to Venice (5½ kilometers) at its extreme western point, and into a reservoir of 10,000 cubic meters capacity, from which it will be propelled into the distributing pipes by artificial force, the reservoir having no elevation, and delivered, not into the houses, but into the cisterns already existing. This reservoir and the submarine trunk pipe are about half finished. Of the 26 kilometers of distributing pipe about two-thirds or 19 kilometers are laid, saving several

syphons under internal canals. Other parts of the work are less advanced, but the whole should be finished and in complete operation on the 1st of October, 1883. The contract leaves the construction and management of the aqueduct to the company, but obliges them to deliver into the city cisterns 55,000 cubic meters of water in twenty-four hours, in consideration of an annual payment by the municipality of 100,000 lire for sixty years, at the expiration of which the works become its property. These are all the public works of interest in the city and its environs, if we except the repairs of the ducal palace, continued for many years past with intermittent activity, and of which the more important part now seems approaching completion, as the corner of the edifice so long concealed, was entirely uncovered during the year and the scaffolding advanced to the last section of the western front. These works are dependent on what funds may be left them after more urgent expenditures.

RAILWAYS.

Throughout the Venetian territory public attention is principally occupied with new lines of railway forming part of a vast scheme of public works for the entire kingdom voted by parliament the year before. Ten of these lines lie more or less within the Venetian territory, varying in length from 29 to 108 kilometers. Of these a line from Mestre (the mainland suburb of Venice) to San Dona and Portogruaro, skirting the northern shore of the Adriatic, and collecting the produce of the fertile plain north of Venice, is of most immediate interest to the city. Eventually prolonged northward to Casarza, 29 kilometers and thence to Spilimberg and Geurona, it will form a sector to the deviating curve of the great line from Venice to Pontelba, thus shortening considerably the distance from Vienna to Venice and Rome. This line (Mestre-Portogruaro), for which the presumed cost is already appropriated conjointly by the state and province, is now in full course of construction, and will be completed in 1889. Its northern continuations (above mentioned) are not yet under contract.

A short line from Chioggia, at the southern extremity of the lagoon, to Adria, 30.6 kilometers, and Rovigo, on the present road to Bologna, is partly in exercise, and will be completed in 1888, to cost $694,448. A singular project urged by a private company has been much discussed during the past year. It proposes to traverse the lagoon for two-thirds of its length, some 15 miles, by two railway bridges, connecting Venice with the mainland north and south, and reducing almost to a straight line the railway from Vienna through Venice to Rome, and removing all possibility of rivalry on the part of any of the neighboring towns on the mainland as a railway center. The idea encounters much opposition on account of the enormous expense and technical difficulties of such bridges. From the Venice and Vienna Railway, at the station of Treviso, a line is in construction to Feltre and Belluno, 76 kilometers, to be completed in 1891, and to cost $1,737,451. This road enters the Alpine valleys directly north of Venice, and does not seem likely to be soon prolonged or to be very lucrative, as it leads up to the wildest passes of the Rhetian Alps, the so-called Dolomite region, principally frequented by tourists and pleasure-seekers. It is all under contract and in course of construction. To the west of this line a prolongation to the Austrian frontier at Primalano, of the existing provincial railway, Padua-Bassano, to meet a projected Austrian line from Trent down the valley of the Upper Brenta, is in contemplation, but no measures have been taken for immediate execution.

The two lines, Mantua-Legnago and Legnago-Monselice, 32 and 39 kilometers, respectively, are only of interprovincial interest; while that from Verona to Bologna is also classed in the Venetian group, but lying for most of its length (108 kilometers) in Emilia, and serving to connect the Brenner road with the great trunk line from Turin to Ancona and Brindisi (English India mail route), it neither forms part of the Venetian railway system, nor can be otherwise than prejudicial to Venice. Its cost is estimated at $2,418,494 (the estimates of cost above are always exclusive of rails and rolling-stock), and is to be supported conjointly by the government and the provinces interested.

AGRICULTURE.

The jurisdiction of the local board of agriculture extending only to the province of Venice, it could only furnish the data within the same limits. No official agricultural statistics by the general government have as yet been published later than 1879, the data for the succeeding two years being now in course of preparation by the competent authorities. The secretary of the provincial board having, however, kindly consented to communicate the informal data regarding the region in general in his possession, I am enabled to submit the partial and approximative results, with the remark that, though only the round numbers could be given, these are so far correct.

The year, in general, has been favorable for certain products, and especially for all kinds of forage. The prolonged drought during the summer months caused some prejudice to other crops, not, however, in a degree to render them inferior to the ordinary average.

Agricultural ameliorations.—The work of reclaiming and improving lands has been continued, particularly in the provinces of Verona, Padua, and Venice, with the aid of machines of great force for draining and breaking them up. In the province of Venice, in addition to these innovations, mostly due to the initiative of private association, a system of representative centralization for the purpose of pursuing agrarian improvements with greater vigor has been inaugurated, and conferences and lectures on agricultural subjects are frequent, particularly on silk and wine culture, and on the phylloxera. Experiments have been made for the introduction of American vines, but without complete success. Inquests have been held on the nature and treatment of *Pellagra* (terrible and unexplained disease, special to cultivators), and in several localities have been constructed "*forni anelli*"—ovens for torrefying Indian corn and preserving it from mold (supposed cause of *Pellagra*), and preparation of bread from Indian meal. In many places also the construction of rural dwellings has been improved, substituting stone houses for the huts of thatch in use.

A general governmental inquest has been held (completed during the year), the results of which are now in course of publication. Unfortunately for the Venetian territory the preliminary portion only has as yet appeared.

Animals and animal products.—In 1880, the latest date for which data could be obtained, there were estimated to exist the following numbers of different breeds of animals:

Cattle.	Verona.	Vicenza.	Belluno.	Udine.	Treviso.	Venice.	Padua.	Rovigo.
Horses	11,000	10,500	2,500	12,000	13,000	4,000	18,000	10,000
Mules	4,000	2,000	800	800	750	500	2,000	700
Horned	60,000	98,000	70,000	160,000	85,000	54,000	80,000	54,000
Sheep and goats	52,000	76,000	72,000	98,000	67,000	30,000	35,000	14,000
Hogs	17,000	31,000	9,000	35,000	25,000	18,000	24,000	21,000

Several reproducing stations, equine and taurine, have been established in different localities, as at Dolo and at San Dona, for the province of Venice, under the care of the local boards.

Diseases among horned cattle have not been above the average of other years, and during the past year, in the provinces of Udine, Padua, and Treviso, experiments have been made, with some success, of the system of vaccination "Pasteur." There is a constant increase in the production of cattle for industrial purposes and for exportation, particularly to France and Germany.

During the past year notable progress has been made in *apiculture* under the care of the provincial board, by inviting prize competitions and holding conferences on the subject. The art was generally abandoned, and where it still existed, the old system, so called "*villico*" (rustic), was followed, by which the comb was destroyed in removing the honey.

The rational system has now been introduced in many villages, and a first exhibition of the results was held in Venice on the occasion of the late Geographical Congress, with the most promising success.

Silk-worm culture is in constant progress, and the production for the whole kingdom is at present estimated at 20,000,000 kilograms. The Venetian territory figures in this result for the following amounts:

	Kilograms.
Belluno	39,000
Padua	210,000
Rovigo	17,000
Vicenza	338,000
Treviso	435,000
Udine	450,000
Venice	80,000
Verona	1,600,000

The importation of this article, constantly in augmentation from 1870 to 1876, has given place in the successive years since to an exportation of equally constant growth.

Dairy products.—There were imported in the year 1881, 75,000 quintals of cheese and 3,000 quintals of butter. Exportations amounted to 30,000 quintals of the former and 25,000 quintals of the latter. The manufacture of cheese is especially general in the provinces of Verona, Vicenza, Belluno, Udine, and Treviso. In the provinces of Treviso and Belluno associate dairies have been found very advantageous, and a number have been established, but no exact data are as yet attainable in regard to their effective production.

Horticulture is highly developed in the province of Venice, as well as in those of Vicenza, Verona, Padua, and Treviso. The horticultural exhibition held in Venice during the year 1881 disclosed the possibility of great economical advantages from this branch of production in the province, of which considerable exportations were established to France, Russia, and Germany; particularly of artichokes, peaches, apples, and of citrate in general.

Agriculture proper is in notable progress in all the provinces, and especially in those of Venice, Verona, Padua, and Rovigo. The principal productions are wheat, Indian corn, rice, rye, barley, oats, beans, vegetables in general, grapes, various fruits, and forage.

Taking into account the extent of territory under cultivation and the intensity of culture, it may be assumed that of the 300 communes constituting the Venetian territory, in one-half the crops were abundant, in one-fifth scanty, and in the rest middling or sufficient. Of for-

age, however, two-thirds of the crop were abundant, the rest middling or scanty, in consequence of drought.

For fruits and garden produce no statistical data can be given, a large part of the produce escaping enumeration on account of the difficulty of gaining direct information from the cultivators, as well as the constant casual exportation by different water-ways. Fruit and garden production is exuberant for local consumption, and large quantities are exported to distant markets.

POPULATION AND HEALTH OF VENICE.

The population of Venice follows the same gradual upward movement as her commerce and manufactures, and has gained perceptibly during the year just elapsed, amounting on December 31, 1881, to 143,423.

Stable:	
Males	64,894
Females	69,047
Transient	9,482
Total, 1881	143,423
Stable:	
Males	64,160
Females	68,078
Transient	9,377
Total, 1880	141,615

The births among the stable part of the population number—

In 1881	3,777=26.6 per 1,000
In 1880	3,367=23.6 per 1,000

The mortality of the year also shows an amelioration on that of the preceding year.

Deaths in 1881:	
Males	1,807
Females	1,773
Total, 1881	3,580=22.5 per 1,000
Deaths in 1880	3,991

These data give Venice "ex equo" with Philadelphia (22.5), and after Baltimore (22) and London (21.7) the third place among the great cities of the world for her low death-rate.

The causes of death were, in the order of their prevalence: pneumonia, bronchitis, &c., 15 per cent.; gastritis, enteritis, &c., 11 per cent.; tuberculosis, 10 per cent.; menengitis, encephalitis, 7.5 per cent.; typhoid, 1.8 per cent.; contagious diseases, as diphtheria, small-pox, scarlatina, &c., in all 99 in number.

The high percentage of pulmonary diseases seems remarkable in a climate so gentle and so highly recommended by physicians as a health station for incipient cases of precisely these affections. The fact results doubtless from the miserable conditions of lodging and nourishment in which the poorest class of the population live, and would seem to warrant a certain school of physicians in assigning such conditions as the veritable cause of phthisis.

Another peculiarity observable in the above data is the numerical predominance of the female population for which Venice has long been proverbial. In the complete statistical tables are found 1,892 female to 1,885 male births, while the inverse relation of 1,527 male to 1,471 female deaths is still the advantage of the weaker sex, whose superior vitality persists even in the relative numbers of the still-born, males

being 124 to females 100, a disproportion always to be observed and often much more strongly marked, as, for instance, in 1879, when it rose to 151 to 100.

EMIGRATION.

Within the past few years a growing desire to emigrate has preoccupied the government and been the subject of much discussion in the press, in view of the absence of that increase of population so necessary to develop the resources of the country, and to reclaim and improve vast portions of it now abandoned to impaludation and malaria, or occupied only by the rudest forms of pastoral life. This tendency to expatriation has been most observable in Southern Italy and in the Venetian provinces, caused in the latter case by the difficulty of subsistence and the unusual frequency of those providential visitations which disappoint the previsions of the cultivator. The subject has attracted the more attention here that several recent cases have been accompanied by painful circumstances of fraud, deception, and extreme distress. The movement has not yet taken very considerable proportions, as will be seen by the following data:

Provinces.	Population according to census of 1876.	Emigration in 1881 to European countries.	To countries out of Europe.
Verona	383,174	182	290
Vicenza	335,252	222	761
Belluno	186,256	7,604	331
Udine	500,335	19,439	542
Treviso	375,005	787	303
Venice	344,838	263	17
Padua	381,985	169	219
Rovigo	212,649	131	9

From the entire Venetian territory, composed of the above eight provinces, the emigration, classed as temporary (for employment in neighboring countries) or definitive, is as follows:

Definitive (emigration proper):	
Single individuals	430
In families	1,948
Temporary:	
Single individuals	19,637
In families	11,222

These emigrations are principally caused by the economic conditions of the country, and frequently are determined by the promises and seductions of speculators, who often delude the ignorant peasantry, who constitute two-thirds of the emigrants.

The emigration *proper* or definitive is in great part for Brazil, the Argentine Republic, Montevideo, and the United States.

Temporary emigration is to Austria, Germany, the Danubian Principalities, Switzerland, Belgium, and France.

FOOD CONSUMPTION.

There were taxed for consumption in Venice and Murano during the

year 1881 the respective quantities of various articles, as stated in the following list:

Wine in casks	hectoliters	140,391
Beeves	head	4,614
Bulls and cows	do	5,098
Calves	do	8,051
Sheep	do	31,101
Poultry	do	15,169
Flour, bread, and macaroni	quintals	115,241
Indian corn meal	do	79,188
Rice	do	30,395
Vegetable oils	do	11,028
Mineral oils	do	6,718
Butter	do	3,150
Eggs	do	5,559
Sugar	do	9,785
Coffee	do	3,061
Dried vegetables	do	11,067

METEOROLOGY.

It is thought sufficient to note here only the most summary indications of the meteorological register, since the monthly bulletins of the observatory are regularly forwarded from this office by desire of the department.

	MM.
Annual barometrical average	760.00
Maximum in the first ten days of November	768.12
Minimum in the first ten days of January	752.03
	°C.
Average temperature	13.30
Maximum, second ten days of July	30.82
Minimum, third ten days of January	2.50
Average humidity	76.40
Maximum, third ten days of November	93.29
Minimum, third ten days of July	59.46

Rain fell during the year to the depth of 671.94 millimeters.

HOSPITALS.

	Patients.	
Admitted during the year 1881		13,153
Remaining on December 31, 1880		2,514
Total		15,667
Of whom were cured and dismissed	12,003	
Of whom died	1,079	
		13,082
Remained under treatment December 31, 1881		2,585

PRISONS.

Number of persons confined on December 31, 1880	1,169
Imprisoned during the year 1881	3,679
Of whom were released	3,695
Of whom died	28
Remained on December 31, 1881	1,125

Of whom 864 were males and 261 females.

McWALTER B. NOYES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Venice, October 7, 1882.

GENERAL IMPORTS.

Statement showing the imports at Venice, Italy, for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Value entered.	Whence imported.
Animals, for slaughter	$1,020,146	Italy.
Butter, lard, and tallow	259,060	Italy.
Cheese	491,440	Italy, Ionian Islands, Great Britain Austria.
Hides and leather	1,408,840	Italy, Turkey, Great Britain, France, Austria.
Wax	309,920	Italy, Arabia, Egypt, Russia, Turkey, Ionian Islands, Great Britain, Austria.
Fish, dried and prepared	898,707	Italy, Great Britain, Austria, Ionian Islands, Sweden, Turkey, Greece.
Oils	5,006,266	Italy, Egypt, Turkey, Greece, Ionian Islands, Malta, France, Austria, Great Britain, East Indies, United States of America.
Refined petroleum	527,635	United States of America, Great Britain, Austria.
Soap	207,760	Italy, Russia, Turkey, Austria, East Indies, France, Roumania, Great Britain, Greece, Egypt.
Grains	5,171,841	Italy, Russia, Turkey, Great Britain, Roumania, France, Egypt, Austria, Greece.
Oleaginous seed	410,562	Italy, Great Britain, Austria, Turkey, East Indies, Egypt France, United States of America.
Colonial drugs	1,520,743	Italy, Great Britain, France, East Indies, Brazil, Arabia, Austria
Wine and spirits	2,759,595	Italy, Great Britain, Austria, Egypt, Turkey, Ionian Islands.
Fruits	1,486,551	Italy, Austria, Turkey, France, Greece, Ionian Islands, East Indies.
Gums	148,644	Italy, East Indies, Austria, Egypt, Turkey, Great Britain, France.
Medicines and preparations	476,125	Italy, France, Austria, Turkey, Greece, Ionian Islands, Egypt, Great Britain.
Niter	6,889	Italy, East Indies, Great Britain, Egypt.
Indigo	282,800	East Indies, Great Britain, Austria.
Colors and dye-woods	131,435	Italy, Turkey, France, Great Britain, Austria.
Silk-worms' eggs	4,200	Japan, Austria.
Raw silk, cocoons, and waste	1,749,820	East Indies, Italy, Turkey, Austria, Egypt, Ionian Islands, Japan.
Hemp	2,172,192	Italy, Great Britain, Austria.
Cotton	5,497,102	East Indies, Egypt, Turkey, Greece, Great Britain, Austria.
Wool	612,248	Italy, Russia, Turkey, Ionian Islands, Austria.
Other materials for weaving	58,782	Great Britain, Italy, Austria.
Manufacture of woven goods	5,119,776	Italy, Turkey, Ionian Islands, Great Britain, Austria, France, East Indies.
Paper, books, and prints	323,766	Italy, Great Britain, Austria.
Natron	15,367	Egypt.
Glass beads and enamels	253,874	Italy, Egypt, Malta, Great Britain, Austria.
Hardware, earthenware, and jewelry	691,900	Italy, Japan, East Indies, United States of America, Turkey, Great Britain, France, Austria.
Metals, rough and worked	2,446,967	Italy, Great Britain, Austria.
Combustibles	1,828,061	Italy, Austria, Turkey.
Timber, rough and worked	1,356,264	Italy, Austria, East Indies, Egypt, Russia, Great Britain, France.
Tobacco	610,936	East Indies, Italy, Turkey, Austria.
Salt	132,295	Italy.
Stone, lime, and cement	338,987	Italy, Greece.
Stearine candles	57,040	Great Britain, Belgium, Austria.
Rosin	80,424	United States of America, Austria.
Gallnuts and barks	272,550	Turkey, Ionian Islands, Malta, Austria.
Sulphur	353,109	Italy, Russia, Austria.
Sundries	1,074,520	Sundries.
Total for 1881	48,147,294	
Total for 1880	43,648,212	
Increase	4,499,082	

GENERAL EXPORTS.

Statement showing the exports from Venice for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Value, including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Butter, lard, and tallow	$355, 390	Italy, Australia, Japan, East Indies, Russia, Turkey, Greece, Austria.
Cheese	338, 854	Italy, Austria, Egypt, Roumania, Barbary States, Russia, Turkey, Greece, Ionian Islands, Austria.
Hides and leather	1, 484, 140	Italy, Turkey, Egypt, Great Britain, Austria, France, Ionian Islands.
Wax	563, 630	East Indies, Italy, Greece, Great Britain, France, Austria.
Fish, dried and prepared	972, 964	Italy, Russia, Turkey, Greece, Austria.
Oils	3, 655, 148	Italy, Austria, Turkey, Australia, Great Britain, France.
Refined petroleum	429, 068	Italy, Turkey, Austria.
Soap	179, 860	Italy, Japan, East Indies, Russia, Malta, Austria.
Grains	2, 647, 512	Italy, Ionian Islands, Austria, France, Roumania, Russia, Turkey, Great Britain, Egypt, Arabia.
Oleaginous seeds	410, 855	Italy, East Indies, Russia, Ionian Islands, Austria.
Colonial drugs	1, 106, 775	Italy, France, Austria, Turkey, Ionian Islands, East Indies, Greece.
Wine and spirits	981, 595	Italy, Egypt, Great Britain, Austria, Japan, Australia, Arabia, East Indies.
Fruits	1, 119, 711	Italy, Turkey, Austria, Great Britain, Russia.
Gums	121, 344	Italy, Roumania, Austria, Russia, Turkey, Greece, Ionian Islands.
Medicines and preparations	459, 318	Italy, France, Austria, Egypt, Barbary States, Roumania, Russia, Turkey, Greece, Great Britain, Ionian Islands.
Nitre	1, 568	Italy.
Indigo	250, 400	Italy, Egypt.
Color and dye woods	67, 025	Italy, Turkey, Austria, Great Britain, Greece, Malta.
Silk-worms' eggs	4, 800	
Raw silk, cocoons, and waste	1, 694, 660	Italy, Egypt, Turkey, Australia, Austria.
Hemp	1, 890, 768	Italy, Roumania, Austria, Turkey, Greece, Great Britain, Ionian Islands.
Cotton	5, 252, 546	Italy, Great Britain, Austria.
Wool	512, 604	Italy, Austria.
Other materials for weaving	23, 402	Italy, Australia, Arabia, Egypt, Turkey, Greece, Roumania, Japan.
Manufacture of woven goods	3, 137, 027	Italy, Australia, Arabia, Egypt, Turkey, Greece, Ionian Islands, Austria, East Indies, Japan, Roumania.
Paper, books, and prints	260, 326	Italy, Japan, East Indies, Roumania, Turkey, Greece, Ionian Islands, Malta, Great Britain, Austria.
Natron	11, 550	Italy.
Glass beads and enamels	2, 208, 978	Italy, Australia, Japan, East Indies, United States of America, Roumania, Arabia, Barbary States, Turkey, Malta, Great Britain, France.
Hardware, earthenware, and jewelry	325, 440	Italy, East Indies, Egypt, Roumania, Russia, Turkey, Greece, Malta, Ionian Islands, Austria.
Metals, rough and worked	1, 313, 892	Italy, Great Britain, Austria, East Indies, Turkey, Great Britain, Ionian Islands, Egypt, Greece.
Combustibles	756, 162	Italy.
Timber, rough and worked	907, 775	Italy, East Indies, Egypt, Arabia, Barbary States, Malta, Great Britain, Austria, Turkey, Greece, Russia, Roumania.
Tobacco	557, 596	Italy, Great Britain.
Salt	202, 975	Italy.
Stone, lime, and cement	195, 062	Italy, Turkey, Malta, Ionian Islands, Austria.
Stearine candles	20, 920	Italy, Turkey, Greece, France, Ionian Islands, Austria.
Rosin	51, 116	Italy, Austria.
Gallnuts and bark	236, 840	Italy, Austria.
Sulphur	394, 794	Italy, East Indies, United States of America, Ionian Islands, France, Spain, Portugal, Austria.

Statement showing the exports from Venice, &c.—Continued.

GENERAL EXPORTS—Continued.

Articles.	Value, including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Matches	$136,095	Italy, Egypt, Greece, Great Britain, Russia, Roumania, Turkey.
Sundries	1,277,883	
Total for 1881	36,536,657	
Total for 1880	37,243,013	
Decrease	706,356	

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF VENICE BY SEA.

Value of merchandise imported by sea in 1881, *as compared with* 1880.

IMPORTS.

Countries whence imported.	1881.	1880.	Increase.	Decrease.
Australia	.....	$120	.....	$120
Japan	$33,080	41,352	.....	8,272
East India	7,289,113	7,387,187	.....	98,074
United States	1,083,100	2,179,697	.....	1,096,597
Brazil	673,120	211,240	$461,880	.....
Arabia	24,076	4,032	20,044	.....
Egypt	1,204,321	924,833	279,494	.....
Barbary States	8,640	22,622	.....	13,982
Roumania	1,101,261	1,129,209	.....	27,948
Russia	428,231	891,161	.....	462,930
Turkey	1,374,198	1,027,804	346,094	.....
Greece	35,273	6,541	48,732	.....
Ionian Islands	1,331,006	228,934	1,102,072	.....
Sweden and Norway	204,201	411,506	.....	207,305
Holland	116,640	115,415	11,225	.....
Malta	6,244	5,490	754	.....
Great Britain	3,556,882	3,470,223	86,659	.....
France	641,307	194,639	446,668	.....
Spain	.....	.....	.....	.....
Portugal	.....	.....	.....	.....
Austria-Hungary	3,654,938	3,327,419	337,519	.....
Italy	5,327,684	4,288,184	1,039,500	.....
Total	27,053,815	26,897,108	156,707	.....

EXPORTS.

Countries whither exported.	1881.	1880.	Increase.	Decrease.
Australia	$75,588	$76,197	.....	$609
Japan	11,004	13,448	.....	2,444
East Indies	1,107,853	1,368,155	.....	26,032
United States of America	95,234	56,236	$38,998	.....
Brazil	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arabia	3,512	7,118	.....	3,606
Egypt	346,042	369,198	.....	23,156
Barbary States	25,888	17,591	7,797	.....
Roumania	20,129	16,128	4,001	.....
Russia	85,308	61,300	17,061	.....
Turkey	532,379	553,357	.....	20,970
Greece	203,901	258,619	.....	54,718
Ionian Islands	261,078	283,492	.....	22,414
Sweden and Norway	.....	.....	.....	.....
Holland	.....	.....	.....	.....
Malta	65,914	119,538	.....	53,624
Great Britain	2,213,812	1,960,635	253,147	.....
France	98,235	70,866	27,369	.....
Spain	58,153	26,931	31,222	.....
Portugal	24,432	.....	24,432	.....
Austria-Hungary	2,551,830	2,690,000	.....	138,170
Italy	2,128,313	2,328,717	.....	200,404
Total	9,908,105	10,277,526	.....	369,421

RETURN OF TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Venice, Italy, and the United States for the year 1881.

Articles.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
Hardware and jewelry		$3,850		
Rosin	1,539	61,572		
Sundries	500	1,000		
Petroleum, 288,600 cases		519,480		
Cotton-seed oil	2,190	394,290		
Oleaginous seed		376		
Tallow	512	102,540		
Glassware, beads, mosaics				$28,629
Bronzes				2,841
Furniture and carved wood				15,715
Statuary (marble)				1,546
Paintings				2,156
Sulphur				34,521
Hemp				8,942
Whisk (straw)				434
Photographs				440
Total for 1881		1,083,108		95,234
Amount for 1880		2,179,697		56,236
Decrease of imports		1,096,589		
Increase of exports				38,998

NAVIGATION.

Statement showing the navigation by flag at the port of Venice, Italy, for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Flag.	ENTERED.						CLEARED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Italian	222	158,140	1,255	81,619	1,477	239,759	218	155,470	1,251	82,328	1,469	237,798
Austrian	247	85,847	471	36,356	718	122,203	246	85,691	478	36,780	724	122,471
Belgian	1	1,344			1	1,344	1	1,344			1	1,344
Danish			2	390	2	390			2	390	2	390
French			3	1,012	3	1,012			3	1,012	3	1,012
German	3	1,806	4	699	7	2,505	3	1,806	4	699	7	2,505
Grecian	4	3,074	45	9,208	49	12,282	4	3,074	43	8,686	47	11,760
English	264	295,057	4	1,454	268	296,511	266	298,120	6	1,818	272	299,938
Montenegro			10	327	10	327			10	327	10	327
Dutch			2	265	2	265			2	307	2	307
Turkish			5	234	5	234			6	269	6	269
Russian			2	422	2	422			1	142	1	142
Swedish and Norwegian	7	3,812	8	3,861	15	7,673	7	3,812	8	3,861	15	7,673
Total	748	549,080	1,811	135,847	2,559	684,927	745	549,317	1,815	136,741	2,560	686,058

Statement showing the navigation by country at the port of Venice, Italy, for the year ending December 31, 1881.

From and to—	ENTERED.						CLEARED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Italy	42	12,116	491	26,306	533	38,422	70	31,709	428	28,344	498	60,053
East Indies	34	52,063	.....	.....	34	52,063	27	44,423	.....	.....	27	44,423
United States	2	2,349	17	9,499	19	11,848	.....	.....	2	1,035	2	1,035
Brazil	.....	.....	11	2,250	11	2,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Egypt	26	35,266	1	250	27	35,516	25	33,956	.....	.....	25	33,956
Barbary States	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1,265	6	1,158	7	2,423
Algiers	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	3,237	1	852	4	4,089
Roumania	13	9,911	33	6,923	46	16,834	10	7,148	9	1,925	19	9,073
Russia	3	3,165	9	2,556	12	5,721	10	9,663	3	956	13	10,619
Turkey	56	54,147	25	1,590	81	55,737	78	71,955	23	2,261	101	74,216
Greece	.....	.....	5	512	5	512	.....	.....	19	3,760	19	3,760
Ionian Isl'ds.	56	33,696	4	204	60	33,900	54	33,939	30	3,555	84	37,494
Sweden and Norway	5	1,954	3	429	8	2,383	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Holland	2	1,776	.....	.....	2	1,776	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Malta	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	1,697	11	3,182	13	4,879
Great Britain	181	180,708	54	23,809	235	204,517	108	123,327	.....	.....	108	123,327
Belgium	3	2,838	.....	.....	3	2,838	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
France	60	49,063	18	4,436	78	53,498	31	28,748	5	1,776	36	30,524
Portugal	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	549	3	549
Spain	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	371	7	2,267	8	2,638
Austria-Hungary	265	110,029	1,140	57,083	1,405	167,112	325	157,879	1,268	85,121	1,593	243,000
Total	748	549,080	1,811	135,847	2,559	684,927	745	549,317	1,815	136,741	2,560	686,058

CATANIA, SICILY.

REPORT BY CONSULAR AGENT PERATONER.

Statement showing the imports at Catania for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value entered.	Whence imported.
Wine, beer, and spirits.....gallons..	203,844	$6,591	Austria, England, and France.
Oils (volatile included).....tons..	1,293	79,281	England, France, and United States.
Drugs, coffee, sugar, and pepper...do...	105	42,292	France, England, and Germany.
Conserves, tea, sirup, chocolate...do...	433	74,769	France, England, and Germany.
Tobacco and cigars .....do...	1	304	Holland.
Acids, salts, and chemicals .....do...	552	54,054	France, Germany, and England.
Tartar and argols .....do...	1	419	France.
Gums, resins, and gutta-percha....do...	203	86,967	France, Greece, and England.
Hats (of straw, silk, &c.).....do...	9	5,097	France and Austria.
Coals.....do...	22,653	16,275	England, France, and Austria.
Instruments (optical and musical)..do...	3	25,102	France and Germany.
Sumac and colors .....do...	605	44,610	England.
Merceries of all kinds .....do...	59	91,452	France, Austria, and Germany.
Line, hemp texture, cables .....do...	1,464	1,523,684	France and England.
Wood and wood planks .....do...	75	183,446	Austria.
Wheat, barley, legumes, &c .....do...	6,664	401,777	Greece and Turkey.
Fish, dry and salted.....do..	52	21,136	England, Holland, and Norway.
Grease, butter, cheese, &c.....do ..	57	27,209	United States of America, Switzerland, France.
Wax and similar.....do..	56	24,406	Holland and Austria.
Rags, paper, and books.....do...	23	11,031	United States of America, France, Holland, and Germany.
Skins, prepared and worked.....do ..	38	52,945	Germany, France, and England.
Metals and metallic works ....do...	5,230	371,688	Belgium, England, and Germany.
Stones, whetstones, and porcelain..do...	4,173	101,839	France, Germany, and Austria.
Total.....	.....	3,246,374	

Statement showing the exports from Catania for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value, including costs and charges.	Countries whither exported.
Wine, spirits, and essences ....gallons..	5, 513, 570	$995, 602	France and England.
Brimstone .....tons..	96, 665	2, 133, 983	England, France, and United States.
Lemons and oranges .....do...	7, 623	359, 570	United States, Austria, and Germany.
Seeds .....do....	960	92, 394	France, United States, and England.
Salts and chemicals .....do....	28	4, 185	England and France.
Licorice and aloe juice.....do ..	260	39, 997	France, United States, and Holland.
Gum, resin, and soap.....do ..	2	335	Not named.
Sumac and wood roots .....do ..	1, 335	67, 977	United States and England.
Horn, hairs, &c.....do....	876	25, 625	France.
Line, hemp, and texture of hemp.do	59	2, 023	Austria and Turkey.
Silk, wool, and texture .....do ..	22	5, 650	France.
Wood and wood works.....do....	12	275	Austria, France, and Levant.
Cork-wood .....do....	80	1, 200	Austria.
Rags and paper .....do....	161	13, 893	United States, and others unnamed.
Skins .....do....	50	23, 212	Austria, France, and Germany.
Fish, dry and salted .....do....	64	10, 053	Malta and Levant.
Mercerics of all kinds .....do....	4	599	Austria, France, and England.
Wheat, rice, &c .....do....	35	1, 490	France and Austria.
Fresh fruits and vegetables.....do....	19	697	Over Europe.
Dry fruits (almonds, nuts, &c) ...do....	1, 040	281, 466	Austria, France, Germany, and United States of America.
Stones, and works of art.....do....	11, 911	21, 711	Austria, France, Russia, Germany, and Turkey.
Conserves and pickles .....do...	.....	45	Not named states.
Tobacco .....do.....	.....	38	France.
Harmonium ..... number..	1	80	Not named.
Total.....	.....	4, 081, 050	

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Catania for the year ending December 31, 1881.

Flag.	ENTERED.						CLEARED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
American....	.....	.....	1	1, 062	1	1, 062	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Austrian	.....	.....	8	3, 315	8	3, 315	.....	.....	14	6, 215	14	6, 215
Greek	2	1, 395	49	8, 758	51	10, 153	3	1, 611	47	6, 969	50	8, 580
French	102	69, 907	3	1, 101	105	71, 008	85	83, 338	4	2, 125	89	85, 463
German.....	15	12, 829	1	235	16	13, 064	24	11, 698	1	235	25	11, 933
Italian.....	470	372, 204	2, 251	78, 665	2, 721	450, 869	494	382, 528	2, 291	81, 135	2, 785	463, 663
England	159	149, 309	15	3, 995	174	153, 304	166	260, 385	8	1, 462	174	261, 847
Others	12	11, 049	19	2, 651	31	13, 700	13	9, 543	11	1, 349	24	10, 892
Total ..	.....	.....	.....	.....	3, 107	716, 475	.....	.....	.....	.....	3, 161	848, 593

Statement showing the imports and exports between Catania and the United States for the year 1881.

Articles.	Imports. Value.	Exports. Value.
Brimstone	.....	$605, 456 56
Fruits, green	.....	400, 507 30
Rags.....	.....	64, 436 09
Sumac	.....	11, 325 04
Canary seeds	.....	7, 873 01
Licorice	.....	5, 754 00
Almonds	.....	1, 788 00
Asphalt	.....	644 50
Terra-cotta figures.....	.....	23 94
Petroleum	$76, 680 00	.....
Total	76, 680 00	1, 097, 808 44

AUGUSTUS PERATONER,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Catania, Sicily, June 30, 1882.

PRESS LAWS OF JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN.

The number of newspapers now published is set down as 113, and of miscellaneous publications as 133. The increase in the number as well as the aggregate circulation reported to me has been very great in the past ten years. The total newspaper circulation in the seventh year Meiji (1874) is said to have been but 8,470,269, while in the tenth year Meiji (1877) it was 33,449,529.

I have not been able to procure the present aggregate circulation, but it will be seen from the figures I shall give of a few of the leading journals, that it must be vastly larger than that of the last year reported. Thus, the *Nichi Nichi Shimbun*, of Tokio, sends out 9,000 copies daily; the *Choya*, 6,000; the *Yubin Hochi*, 5,000; the *Yokohama Mainichi*, 3,800; the *Akebono Shimbun*, 2,500; the *Yeiri*, 19,000; the *Yomi-Uri*, 13,000; *the Iroha*, 3,000; the *Ukiyo*, 3,000; the *Sudzukida*, 2,500; the *Osaka Nippo*, about 3,300; the *Osaka Shimpo*, 2,900. Allowing three hundred publication days in a year, this will give an annual aggregate circulation of these dozen papers of nearly 29,000,000 copies.

The other publications average much less than those named, their contents consisting mostly of official divisional proclamations and various trivial local items.

The *Nichi Nichi Shimbun* enjoys a high reputation for ability. It is conducted on conservative principles and is generally considered to be the official organ of the government. The *Choya* is also a first-class political paper, and contains reports on scientific subjects, such as mining, engineering, &c. The *Yubin Hochi*, the *Mainichi*, and the *Akebono* are likewise of the first class, and discuss political and commercial topics. The *Osaka Nippo* and the *Shimpo* are also considered of the same class as those mentioned above, and are devoted to the same subjects. The others that I have mentioned, sold at about one cent a copy, are printed in the common characters (Kata-Kana and Hira-Kana), so as to be read by the lower classes, among whom they have a large circulation. Their contents consist principally of police news, crimes, love affairs, scandal, and frequently of gross indecencies. This is particularly true of the *Yeire* and the *Sudzukida*, which are partially illustrated. The former, it will be seen, has a daily circulation of 19,000, but these figures by no means afford a proper estimate of the number of its readers. Each paper will probably be looked over by a dozen or two of people—men, women, and children.

The restrictive press laws of the empire are not directed to the morals of these popular sheets, but only to their political expressions. They may revel in indecencies so long as they remain silent as to governmental affairs, and have no opinions upon subjects of vital importance.

I append a copy of the press laws of 1875 and of those as proposed to be amended in 1878, both Japan Herald translations. The latter are taken from the *Akebono Shimbun*. That paper does not vouch for their entire accuracy, but believes them to be substantially correct. Whether they were really adopted I have no means of ascertaining. They differ from the code of 1875 in abolishing imprisonment and increasing the amount of fines. Article 9 of this latter code provides a fine of from 5 to 100 yen for the publication of anything offending against good morals

and decency; but these terms are somewhat indefinite in Japan, and I have never heard of an instance of a conviction for that offense.

Article 8, however, contains a prohibition which, if attempted in the United States, would bring about a war of words, compared with which the confusion of Babel would be but soft whisperings.

> If a newspaper speaks disrespectfully of the law, or states that the law has been wrongfully administered, the editor shall be fined from 5 to 500 yen, or his paper be prohibited from appearing for a term not less than three and not longer than one hundred days.

Think of the great leading newspapers of the United States being prohibited publication for one hundred days, or the editors compelled to pay a penalty of $100 for every paragraph speaking "disrespectfully of the law" or its administration!

But what renders the prohibition much more serious here than it would be in the United States, is that the term "law" is scarcely more definite here than "morals."

From what has been permitted to be published, from time to time, of trials for violation of these press laws, resulting in fine and imprisonment of the editors and proprietors, I have never been able to understand the provisions alleged to have been violated.

Article 12 puts every native newspaper in Japan at the mercy of the minister of the home department, who, whenever he considers a paper injurious to the "peace of the country," may not only suppress such paper, but neither the proprietor, manager, nor editor may engage in any other newspaper enterprise for from one to three years thereafter.

Under these circumstances journalism in Japan may well be considered an "extra hazardous risk." And yet newspaper editors here are much like their confrères elsewhere, and, whether from sheer stubbornness, or courage, or patriotism, or all three, or from whatever motive, no sooner is one writer imprisoned and fined than another springs up to take his place, and ventures further along the forbidden path than his predecessor, and the suppressed editor generally celebrates his exit from prison by publications far exceeding in point and severity of criticism those for which he had suffered.

In spite of suppressive enactments a portion of the press of Japan is frequently almost audacious in its critiques upon "law and its administration," and plainly outspoken upon all subjects affecting the welfare of the people. In their views concerning foreigners and foreign affairs, however, they are too often controlled by prejudice and national vanity, which preclude a proper estimate of their subject. This failing, however, is not confined to Japan, and may be, perhaps, ascribed to the weakness of universal human nature.

Upon one topic almost the entire political press seems to be of one mind, viz, advocacy of the creation of a representative assembly.

I append a copy of an article upon the subject, taken from the *Hochi Shimbun*, as a specimen of Japanese newspaper writing, translated by the Japan Times.

Whether in this the writers represent the popular wish or create it, certain it is that the demand for such an assembly has become almost universal among the people, and the government itself is dealing with it in a very different spirit from that of two or three years since, and there are indications that it is even being seriously discussed and considered. That something of the kind will, before long, be established, I am firmly convinced.

What will be its character it is difficult to say, as the problem is not an easy one. The people of Japan, with many estimable qualities, are

mercurial, excitable, and variable to a great degree, and the masses having but just emerged from the despotic rule of ages, and with a consequent earnest longing for the very extreme of freedom, are hardly a safe constituency of a free popular assembly.

Every well-wisher of Japan must hope, however, that the subject will be wisely dealt with, and some proper form of representation arranged whereby the government can be kept advised of the views of the people and such laws be enacted as are best suited to their welfare.

It has not seemed to me my duty in making reports upon this and other subjects to discuss the wisdom or folly of the enactments of the government or the policy of its general course of action. I therefore refrain from doing so at present, merely giving, as near as I have been able to ascertain them, the condition of the press of Japan and the laws affecting it.

THO. B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Yokohama, Japan.

JAPANESE NATIVE PRESS REGULATIONS, 1875.

[Translation from the Japan Herald.]

ARTICLE 1. Any persons proposing to publish a newspaper or miscellaneous writings, must first obtain permission from the government. The course for him to pursue is to present a petition to the home department, through the Fu or Ken under whose jurisdiction he may be living. Should he violate this rule he will be liable to prosecution, to be forbidden to continue his publication, and to be fined—proprietors, editors, and printers—100 yen each. Should any person falsely pretend to possess the regular permit, he will be liable to a fine of from 100 to 200 yen, and the confiscation of his printing plant and machinery.

ART. 2. Sets forth the method in which the permit to print shall be applied for, the matters, such as names, station, &c., of proprietor, editor, and printer, to be stated in the petition, and the penalties to which infraction of the regulations subject an offender.

ART. 3. In the event of the death or dismissal of an editor, a temporary substitute may be employed, but his name and abode must be reported to the Fu or Ken within fifteen days. Should this provision not be complied with, the publication may be stopped and the proprietor may be fined 100 yen. Any change of proprietors, printers, or editors must be reported within fifteen days, under penalty of a fine of 100 yen.

ART. 4. The proprietors, the head man of a company of owners, editors, and temporary editors must be Japanese.

ARTS. 5 AND 6. The proprietor or representative of a company of owners may be also editor. If there be more than two editors, one must be appointed chief. At the end of each paper or book the names of editor and printer must be given. If there are several editors, the name of the chief must be given. Should the editor be laid up, a substitute must be appointed and his name published during the chief's illness. Infraction of this rule may be punished by fines of from 100 to 500 yen. Those whose names are published at the end of a book or paper are held responsible for its contents.

ART. 7. Should anything appear defamatory or slanderous, the editor will be held primarily responsible, and after him the writer.

ART. 8. Any person writing on home or foreign matters, the laws or resources of the country, humanities (*sic*), occurrences, literature, art, religion, polemics, and other subjects bearing upon the government or the interests of the people, must sign his name to his article. Any person writing under a feigned name may be imprisoned for thirty days and fined 10 yen. Should he use the name of another person he will be liable to imprisonment for seventy days and to be fined 20 yen.

ART. 9. Writers, translating from foreign papers, must sign their names.

ART. 10. Under certain circumstances, should an editor be imprisoned, another editor may be employed.

ART. 11. Letters sent from people to a newspaper for publication must be published (?) under penalty of a fine from 10 to 100 yen.

ART. 12. Any person inciting another to offend against the laws for the regulation

of publication is held as guilty as the actual offender, and may be imprisoned from three to five years and fined from 10 to 500 yen.

ART. 13. Any person who falsely notifies a change in the government, or a discussion, with a view to mislead the people, may be imprisoned from one to three years.

ART. 14. Any person trying to hide the crime of slandering the constitution or disobeying the laws may be imprisoned from one month to a year and fined from 5 to 500 yen.

ART. 15. Proceedings of the judicial courts and the actions of judicial officers may not be published unless they are officially notified. Infringement of the article involves imprisonment from one month to one year and a fine of from 100 to 500 yen.

ART. 16. No memorial may be published without previous permission obtained from In Sho Shi under the same penalties as those mentioned in the above article.

ADDITIONAL RULES.

Any person who has already permission, and has opened a newspaper office, previous to this notification, need make no petition. But he must furnish reports, as provided in the second article, within ten days after receipt of this notification, under penalty of being forbidden to publish.

In the event of there being many editors, the proprietors must appoint a chief within two days. If the name or names of those actually responsible in the management are not published for two days, the paper may be suppressed. Any person wanting to republish it must apply to the Naimusho, as directed in the first article.

HOW A STATESMAN CAN BEST SECURE HIS POSITION.

[Translation from the Japan Herald.]

From old time until now there seem to have been always five methods by which a statesman can assure the permanency of his power—dependence upon popular favor; on military force; upon his sovereign; upon the princes of the blood; upon the sovereign's male or female favorites. These means of support are all unequal in their value, and the permanence of a statesman's power is more or less insecure as he leans on one or the other. A far-sighted man, observant of the signs of the times, selects that which is the strongest, and thereby secures himself; but a man not gifted with such powers of observation and discrimination attaches himself to a party or a person without observing how limited is his power, and therefore falls. Thus it is evident that the security of a statesman's power depends entirely upon the means he selects for his support.

What is dependence upon popular favor? This is the reliance by a man whose whole heart and soul are devoted to the protection and advancement of his countrymen, and whose bravery or talents gain their esteem—upon the good will of the people, who, in their turn, depend and rely upon him. No matter whether he be in office or in retirement, the people look to him in any time of change or danger to the state. A statesman thus supported by public opinion is most powerful, and even when he retires from office yet his influence remains; and thus enjoying power, is in security himself and his family is established. As, however, a statesman will not receive this sort of support unless he be upright, honorable, and intelligent, all men engaged in public affairs should strive to obtain it.

For all other means of support are bad. What is dependence upon military force? This is the support given to a man who retains his position by favor of the soldiers and officers under his control, and who would sacrifice their lives to retain his position; or it is the state of a man who holds a high office in the central government of his country by virtue of the military power of a single *ken* or *han* which is under his control. Supported thus by a great and powerful force, the influence of such a statesman must needs be great; but, in the event of this force being disbanded, his power and influence would immediately sink to nothing, and himself into insignificance. Such power is evidently not permanent. Then, what is the value of "dependence on the sovereign?" This is the support of a man who has luckily gained the confidence of an intelligent monarch, who approves what he says and contrives, and trusts implicitly to him; or who gains the favor of an unintelligent, young monarch, by providing for him pleasures of luxury and sensuality. But intelligent monarchs do not always exist, and the favor of an unintelligent sovereign is difficult to keep, and such a master is always ready to believe slander. This, therefore, cannot be regarded as permanent support, and a statesman who depends on his sovereign's favor is surely insecure. What, then, can we say of "dependence on the princes of the blood?"

When a monarch is young or incapable, and there is no great minister to control the state, government is sure to lapse into the hands of the near relatives of the crown, and some statesmen try to attach themselves to these, and so rule through them. In the same way, the male or female attendants of a weak prince often acquire great influence with him, and govern the people thus indirectly—to their own great profit and increase of wealth and dignity. But a statesman who should join himself to such, or to princes of the blood, cannot but fail.

But a statesman must have something to depend upon, some power to support him. We have shown the folly of depending on military force, the favor of the sovereign, influence of the royal family, and palace intrigue. What support, then, should a statesman seek? Clearly the support and favor of the people. And then comes the question: How is such support to be got? We reply: The only means is the establishment of a national parliament. If the great power of framing laws were intrusted to the people, and to statesmen and ministers were reserved only the duty of carrying out the people's wishes—the executive power—then a statesman might obtain the people's support. And though this may, at first sight, appear to be cutting off half a minister's power and to be giving it to the people, thus diminishing his influence, this is not so. His position would be made so much more permanent and secure by the support of the people, that it would redound much to his advantage.

The above argument is mainly devoted to the consideration how ministers may retain their power, but it involves also the best means to secure the safety of the country.

THE NEW RUSSIAN TARIFF.

TRANSMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT BY CONSUL-GENERAL STANTON, OF ST. PETERSBURG.

I have the honor to transmit herewith a copy of the new Russian tariff which came into force on the 15th of July, 1882. The translation is by Edward C. Froom, esq., and is said to be very correct.

In connection herewith it may be said that this new tariff has greatly reduced the "free list," and largely increased the duties generally.

EDGAR STANTON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
St. Petersburg, August 30, 1882.

TARIFF OF CUSTOMS DUTIES LEVIED IN THE EMPIRE OF RUSSIA FROM THE 1ST (13TH) JULY, 1882.

[Translated by EDW. C. FROOM from the official Russian.]*

NOTE BY THE TRANSLATOR.

The following tariff is, as nearly as possible, a translation of the Russian original, with all the changes and corrections which have been made, up to the 1st (13th) July.

In the conversion of the Russian values and measures into English, every care has been taken to insure correctness.

The duty in Russia has to be paid in gold; thus, in converting the Russian values in these tables into English equivalents, the rouble has been taken at 38*d.* metallic to give a sterling value.

This tariff came into force on the 1st (13th) July, 1882.

1 rouble (100 cop.) = 38*d*; 1 pood = 36.08 pounds; 1 pound (Russ.) = 14.43 oz. avoir.; 1 arshin = 28 inches.

N. B.—Poisons and strong reagents can be imported only by persons who have a license to trade in them.

* Watkins & Co., publishers, No. 10 Admiralty Plain, St. Petersburg.

PART I.—IMPORT DUTIES.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	I.—ARTICLES OF FOOD.		
1	Corn, in grain, of all kinds, except rice (§ 46): also potatoes, free.		
2	Vegetables, of every kind (except potatoes), fresh and dried, not pressed (§ 50); chicory in plants and roots, not prepared.	10 kopecks per pood, gr.	1*s.* per cwt., g.
3	Aniseed, caraway seed, coriander seed, and mustard, dry, not prepared.	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
4	Canceled.		
5	Lemon, orange, and bitter orange peel, dried, not candied; peel of bitter oranges, salted, and dried bitter unripe oranges.	....do	Do.
6	Articles of food not specially mentioned ..... N. B.—Fresh fish imported in Russian vessels pays no duty.	10 kopecks per pood, gr.	1*s.* per cwt.
	II.—RAW AND HALF-MANUFACTURED MATERIALS.		
7	For building and manufacturing purposes:		
	1. Clays used in buildings, or for works or manufactures except those mentioned in § 105, Article 2; trash, talc, in raw state, chalk not refined, free.		
	2. Gypsum (raw), gypsum stone, lime, talc, and chalk, refined and prepared:		
	a. Imported to Baltic ports	3 kopecks per pood.	3½*d.* per cwt.
	b. Imported by other ports, free.		
	3. Cement, patent fire-bricks and stone slabs for stoves, Puzzolana, prepared gypsum or alabaster.	7 kopecks per pood.	8*d.* per cwt.
8	Stone, common, not worked:		
	1. Paving stones, silex (flint, &c.) in pieces, or ground and prepared; broken glass, free.		
	2. Filtering stones, mill-stones, Swedish and other whetstones (except those specially mentioned), grindstones (except those in § 143), all stone in slabs, stones for lithographic purposes, slate in rough state, mica, carbon filters.	3 kopecks per pood.	3½*d.* per cwt.
	NOTE.—Lithographic stones, with words or drawings, must pass the censor's office.		
9	Stones, precious, not set, also imitations; real pearls in beads and on strings, garnets, coral (real), not worked (in pieces, not cut or pierced).	2 roubles per pound	7*s.* ½*d.* per pound.
10	Artificial stone for mosaic work (tesserae) and mosaic work not set; coral, artificial, not worked.	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
11	Jet, mother of pearl, tortoise shell, amber (yellow), meerschaum, not worked; enamel in lumps and powder (except blue enamel, § 118); ivory.	....do	Do.
12	Stassfurth salts (Abraum Salz), chloride of calcium refined or not refined, free.		
13	Sulphur:		
	1. Raw and unrefined, free.		
	2. Refined, and flowers of sulphur.....	10 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* per cwt.
14	Metallic and mineral ores of every kind, graphite or plumbago in pieces. Copper scoriae, iron in powder, cast-iron turnings.	2 kopecks per pood.	2½*d.* per cwt.
15	Coal, charcoal of wood or turf; coke and turf, free. OBS.—Coal and coke imported into Poland pay duty of 1 cop. per pood.		
16	Tar of all kinds, of wood, of coal, or of naphtha, bitumen, and pitch, fluid or thick (except fossil tar, *i. e.*, asphaltum, mineral wax, bees'-wax, naphtagil, &c., § 26, Article 6); also bird-lime.	5 kopecks per pood, gr.	6*d.* per cwt., g.
17	Substances for tanning, viz, bark, acorns	6 kopecks per pood.	7*d.* per cwt.
18	Guano and other manures, prepared or not. Bones (except elephant and mammoth, § 11), ground or not—or otherwise prepared, free.		

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	II.—RAW AND HALF-MANUFACTURED MATERIALS—Continued.		
19	Timber, not specially mentioned, free.		
20	Cork-wood, not worked	10 kopecks per pood, gr.	1*s.* per cwt., g.
21	Carding thistles	20 kopecks per pood, gr.	1*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt., g.
22	Hay, straw, cleaned or not; bulbs, bark, grass, flowers, roots, seeds (except specially mentioned), and all fresh or dried plants and vegetable products; also such as are used in medicine, free. Obs.—The importation of Cocculus Indicus, or berries used in fishing, prohibited.		
23	Dried essence, licorice or cuttings of almonds, not scented.	20 kopecks per pood.	1*s* 11½*d.* per cwt.
24	Fibrous vegetable substances, raw:		
	1. Cotton, raw	45 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	2. Jute, raw	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	3. Flax and hemp, combed or not; flax and hemp waste and combings; wool of fir tree spines, vegetable hair, manila hemp, fiber of nettles and other vegetables used as substitutes for flax and hemp, raw, free.		
25	Rags of all kinds, paper shreds, *papier maché*, and paper pulp, not worked, free.		
26	Animal products:		
	1. Bones of every kind, burnt or ground; also animal charcoal.	10 kopecks per pood, gr.	1*s.* per cwt.
	2. Horns of every kind, and hoofs, free.		
	3. Hair, not worked:		
	a. Human	5 roubles per pood.	£2 9*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	b. All other kinds	10 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* per cwt.
	4. Down and feathers, unless specially mentioned.	20 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt.
	5. Skins not dressed, hides, salted and dried, except those in § 85; also fish-skins and shreds of raw, undressed skins.	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	6. Tallow and wax:		
	a. Animal tallow, train-oil	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt.
	b. Stearine, paraffine, and spermaceti	1 rouble per pood.	9*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	c. Fish and whale blubber	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	d. Bees-wax, mineral wax, and wax for dressing trees.	1 rouble per pood.	9*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	7. Canceled.		
	8. Silk waste (*bourre de soie*), not combed, silk sweepings of every kind, and cocoons.	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	9. Parts of animals and animal products used in medicine, not specially mentioned, free.		
27	Animals, domestic, horses, &c., and live animals of every kind, except those in § 67, free.		
	III.—MANUFACTURES.		
28	Bricks, ordinary, and fire-bricks, tiles for roofing, slabs of fire-clay, drainage and water pipes, except those of metal, free.		
29	Carpenters' work of every kind, wooden axles, jambs, spokes, naves (of wheels), wheelbarrows, carts, and other rough articles not specially mentioned, and all coopers' work. Obs.—Wooden pegs for shoes pay 30 kopeeks per pood, under § 180.	5 kopecks per pood.	6*d.* per cwt.
30	Basket work:		
	1. Basket work, common, of cane, willow, common straw, bark, or laths, &c., mats and bags of the same:		
	a. Unpainted	15 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	b. Painted	45 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duty*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	III.—MANUFACTURES—Continued.		
	2. Furniture of lath wood, straw, &c., shoes of reed, shave-grass, and other similar plants worked up.	20 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt.
	3. Door-mats: sacks and matting of reed, shave-grass, and other plants, free.		
31-34	Canceled.		
35	Agricultural machinery, and other implements, without steam-engines, not specially mentioned, free.		
	OBS.—Duplicate parts of the above, and also the indispensable fittings thereof, imported together with them, are admitted free. If imported separately from machinery, &c., they pay under § 175, Article 1.		
36	Sea and river going vessels of every description, with or without their rigging:		
	1. Iron built, under 200 lasts, per last displacement.	20 roubles per last.	£1 16*s.* 2*d.* per ton.
	2. Iron built, above 200 lasts	10 roubles per last.	18*s.* 1*d.* per ton.
	3. Wooden vessels	5 roubles per last.	9*s.* per ton.
	(N. B.—The last=4,000 lbs.=about 1⅔ tons.)		
	OBS.—Vessels imported in parts, with or without steam-engines, pay duty on each part according to various sections.		
37-38	Canceled.		
39	Books, drawings, &c.		
	1. Pictures, drawings, hand-painted and drawn, and without frames, also manuscripts, free.		
	2. Engravings, lithographs, prints, music, &c., reproducible prints, photographs, &c., free.		
	3. Books printed in foreign languages, free.		
	4. Books in Russian, printed abroad:		
	a. Without binding	3 roubles per pood.	£1 9*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	b. Bound	4 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£2 4*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	NOTE 1.—The above articles are subject to the rules of the censorship.		
	NOTE 2.—In the case of pictures being framed, the frames are subject to § 181.		
40	Articles for collections, museums, &c., and all curiosities (coins, weapons, &c.), not having the character of merchandise, free.		
41	Canceled.		
42	Patterns of stuffs of all kinds, measuring less than an arshin, free.		
	IV.—ARTICLES OF FOOD.		
43	Flour, malt, and grits (except potato flour)	10 kopecks per pood, gr.	1*s.* per cwt., g.
44	Potato flour	60 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
45	Starch, in lumps and powder	1 rouble per pood	9*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
46	Rice:		
	1. Ordinary	70 kopecks per pood.	6*s.* 10*d.* per cwt.
	2. Rice in the husk	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
47	Vermicelli and macaroni, sago and arrowroot	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
48	Yeast of beer:		
	1. Liquid	90 kopecks per pood.	8*s.* 10*d.* per cwt.
	2. Dried and pressed	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
49	Salt, culinary, of every description:		
	1. Imported to any parts, except those mentioned below.	20 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt.
	2. To the ports of the White Sea	10 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* per cwt.
	OBS.—In the ports of the government of Archangel 21,000 pounds of salt may be imported annually free of duty for the purpose of curing fish, and any quantity may be brought free to the Murman coast of the White Sea.		

PART I.—*Import duty*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	ARTICLES OF FOOD—Continued.		
	3. To the Polish frontier and to the ports on the Black and Azof Seas, prohibited.		
	OBS.—Salt imported at the custom-houses in Poland is admitted free of duty if for government use; also salt for the manufacture of soda is admitted free.		
50	Vegetables and fruit:		
	1. Vegetables, salted, soaked, dried, and pressed ..	55 kopecks per pood, gr.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt., g.
	2. Fruits and berries, fresh, salted, soaked, &c., except those named below.	1 rouble per pood .	9*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Fruits and vegetables in hermetically closed vessels pay duty under § 62.		
	3. Oranges, lemons, bitter oranges.....	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	4. Grapes, fresh	1 rouble 40 kopecks per pood.	13*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
51	Capers and olives, dried, pickled, and in oil; imported in casks, baskets, &c., not in hermetically closed vessels.	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	In oil or vinegar, in hermetically closed vessels, under § 62.		
52	Carob beans.....	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
53	Nuts:		
	1. Of all kinds, forest and garden, except those specially mentioned, peach kernels, chestnuts, and cocoanuts.	80 kopecks per pood.	7*s.* 10*d.* per cwt.
	2. Almonds, with and without husks, also pistachio nuts.	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
54	Fruits and berries, dried, of all kinds, plums, prunes, figs, raisins, dates, &c., not in sugar; also Turkish confectionery (Rahat-Lukum and Alva).	1 rouble per pood .	14*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—The duty is leviable on the above inclusive of the weight of the boxes in which they are packed.		
55	Beef, salted, smoked, and dried, and sausages.....	80 kopecks per pood.	7*s.* 10*d.* per cwt.
56	Cheese	5 roubles per pood.	£2 9*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Cheese imported in lead or tin wrappers pays duty on the weight, inclusive of such wrappers.		
57	Butter	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
58	Honey and honey treacle	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood, gr.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt., g.
59	Treacle of cane sugar, of beet-root sugar, of fecula, &c., except of honey; also sugar of milk.	....do	....do .....
60	Confectionery (sweetmeats), except Turkish, § 54:		
	1. Preserves, assia in pots and jars, fruit in liqueurs, in rum, in brandy, in sirup, in juice; fruit sirups, pastilla, and chocolate.	8 roubles per pood, gr.	£3 18*s.* 6*d.* per cwt., g.
	2. Fruits boiled thick without sugar, with which are included preserves of pears and grapes, *i. e.*, bekmess; cocoa prepared without sugar.	5 roubles 50 kopecks per pood, gr.	£2 13*s.* 8*d.* per cwt., g.
61	Ginger-bread, pâtes, English and American biscuits, with or without sugar.	3 roubles 50 kopecks per pood, gr.	£1 14*s.* 2*d.* per cwt., g.
62	Condiments of every kind, such as prepared mustard, soy, pickles, also capers, olives, and all fruits and vegetables in oil, vinegar, &c. (except those specially mentioned), imported in glass, pots, tin, and other hermetically sealed vessels.	4 roubles per pood, gr.	£1 19*s.* per cwt., g.
63	Truffles, mousserons, champignons, and other mushrooms, in vinegar, oil or salt; also dried and fresh truffles.	6 roubles per pood, gr.	£2 19*s.* per cwt., g.
64	Mushrooms, dried (except such as are only used for medicinal purposes, § 22).	44 kopecks per pood, gr.	4*s.* 4*d.* per cwt., g.
65	Fish:		
	1. Marinated, prepared in oil and stuffed, and caviar.	4 roubles per pood, gr.	£1 19*s.* 2*d.* per cwt., g.
	2. Salted and smoked (except herrings)	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood, gr.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt., g.
66	Herrings and fish, dried and undried:		

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	IV.—ARTICLES OF FOOD—Continued.		
	1. Smoked herrings	22 kopecks per pood, gr.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt., g.
	2. Salted herring, cod, and other fish	15 kopecks per pood, gr.	1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt., g.
	OBS. TO §§ 65 AND 66.—All fish, fresh or otherwise, imported in Russian vessels in the government of Archangel, free.		
67	Oysters, lobsters, crabs, mussels, cuttlefish, snails, &c., fresh, dried, salted, or marinated.	2 roubles per pood, gr.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt., g.
	OBS.—In hermetically-closed vessels under § 62.		
68	Chicory and acorns roasted, and other substitutes for coffee, in lumps or pressed, but without admixture of coffee (*vide* Obs. to § 70).	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt., g.
	OBS.—Chicory in its raw state (in plants and roots) and acorns not roasted, are admitted free of duty under § 2 and § 17.		
69	Laurel leaves and berries, and galangal	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	V.—COLONIAL PRODUCE.		
70	Coffee in beans	2 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£1 4*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Coffee, roasted and ground, as well as any substitute (*e. g.*, chicory), in the condition of flour, or with admixture of coffee, pays duty under this paragraph.		
71	Cocoa, in beans and cocoa shells	2 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£1 4*s.* 6*d.* per. cwt.
	OBS.—Cocoa, ground, *vide* § 60.		
72	Spices:		
	1. Vanilla and saffron	12 roubles per pood	£5 17*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	2. Cardamom, mace, and nutmegs	4 roubles per pood	£1 19*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	3. Cloves, clove-heads, pepper, ginger, and all other spices not specially mentioned.	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
73	Sugar:		
	1. Raw and crushed or pounded, without admixture of lumps.	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	2. Refined, lumps, and sugar-candy, in loaves and pieces.	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pood.	£1 12*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
74	Tobacco:		
	1. In the leaf and in bundles, with or without stalks, and tobacco-stalks.	15 roubles 40 kopecks per pood.	£7 11*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	2. Tobacco, for smoking and for snuff, cut, of every kind, twisted, in rolls, cakes, &c.	1 rouble per pound.	3*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	3. Cigars, and cut tobacco wrapped in leaves	2 roubles 40 kopecks per pound.	3*s.* 5*d.* per pound.
75	Tea:		
	1. Flower, green and yellow	24 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£11 17*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	2. Ordinary black tea (the tea of commerce), tea in stalks, and brick tea.	17 roubles per pood.	£8 5*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	VI.—SPIRITS AND DRINKS.		
76	Arack, rum, French brandy (cognac), and spirit distilled from plums, imported in casks or barrels.	11 roubles per pood, gr.	£5 8*s.* 6*d.* per cwt., g.
77	Spirits distilled from corn, in bottles; liqueurs, Kirchwasser, gin, whisky, spirituous infusions; also rum, arack, French brandy, and spirits distilled from plums, in bottles.	75 kopecks per bottle.	2*s.* 4½*d.* per bottle.
	OBS.—The importation in casks of spirituous liquors distilled from corn is prohibited.		
78	Wine:		
	1. Imported in casks or barrels	2 roubles 55 kopecks per pood, gr	£1 5*s.* per cwt., g.
	2. Wine imported in bottles, not sparkling	40 kopecks per bottle.	1*s.* 3*d.* per bottle.
	3. Wine imported in bottles, sparkling, all kinds	1 rouble 10 kopecks per bottle.	3*s.* 6*d.* per bottle.
79	Mead, Linden honey, cherry wine, ale, and porter:		
	1. In casks	17 kopecks per bottle.	6½*d.* per bottle.
	2. In bottles	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	VI.—SPIRITS AND DRINKS—Continued.		
80	Vinegar of every kind (except toilet vinegar); also cider and perry:		
	1. In casks	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood. gr	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	2. In bottles	11 kopecks per bottle.	4½*d.* per bottle.
81	Waters, gaseous, not containing alcohol, such as carbonic acid and soda waters; also mineral waters of every kind, natural or artificial.	3 kopecks per bottle.	1*d.* per bottle.
82	Fruit juice, containing no sugar, with or without trace of alcohol.	50 kopecks per pood, gr.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt., g.
	Obs.—Fruit juice containing an admixture of alcohol is liable to an additional duty of 10 kopecks on each degree of alcohol in addition to the duty of 50 kopecks per pood.		
	The importation of fruit juice containing more than 16 degrees (Trallis) of alcohol is prohibited.		
	VII.—VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL SUBSTANCES, MISCELLANEOUS.		
83	Wood:		
	1. Exotic, for joiners' and turners' work, such as pock-wood (lignum vitæ), cedar, cypress, mahogany, walnut wood, palixander, palm, and all kinds of odoriferous wood, in blocks, logs, and deals.	10 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* per cwt.
	2. In sheets or veneer, of every kind	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	Obs. 1.—For dye-wood of every kind see § 109.		
	Obs. 2.—Sheets up to ¼ vershok in thickness are considered as veneer.		
84	Hides and skins, dressed:		
	1. Small: Calf-skin, tanned, prepared with alum and tawed; also morocco leather, kid, chamois, fish-skin, and all skins cut for boots and shoes.	9 roubles per pood.	£4 7*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.
	2. Large: Ox, cow, horse, and pig skins, tanned, prepared with alum or tawed, and straps of walrus skin; also parchment.	5 roubles per pood.	£2 9*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	3. Lacquered, of all kinds	6 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£3 4*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	Obs.—Prepared leather shreds pay the same duty as the description of leather to which they belong. If raw, they are admitted free. See § 26, Article 5.		
85	Peltries:		
	1. Skins (furs) of all kinds, except those specially mentioned.	15 roubles per pood	£7 7*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	2. Sable, blue fox, fisher, chinchilla, marten, fox-skin, and sea-bear.	30 roubles per pood	£14 22*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	3. Skins and tails of muskrat, bear-skins, skins of kangaroo and opossum, rabbit-skins, wolf-skins, tiger-skins, leopard-skins, &c.	5 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£2 14*s.* per cwt.
	4. Fox, marten, and other skins brought to the ports of the government of Archangel by the inhabitants of the coast.	5 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£2 14*s.* per cwt.
	Obs. 1.—Walrus, elk, seal, and white grampus skins (belouga) brought to the ports of the government of Archangel by the inhabitants of the coast, as well as all peltries of Russian origin imported in Russian ships, excepting those specified in Article 4 of this §, are admitted free of duty.		
	Obs. 2.—Sheep-skins dyed and dressed are admitted under Article 3 of this §; but if not dyed and dressed, under § 26, Article 5.		
86	Whalebone	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	Obs.—Small ribs of cane, used in umbrella-making, in lieu of whalebone, pay duty under this §.		
87	Sponge	2 roubles per pood	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	VIII.—WEAVING AND SPINNING MATERIALS.		
88	Hemp and flax yarn of all kinds and jute yarn.....	4 roubles 40 kopecks per pood.	£2 3*s.* per cwt.
	OBS.—For hemp and flax thread see § 92. Article 3.		
89	Silk:		
	1. Raw and silk waste, or *bourre de soie*, carded (silk wadding), dyed or not dyed.	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Silk waste, not carded, of all kinds, as well as cocoons, pay duty under § 26, Article 8.		
	2. Twist, tram, and organzine, and silk, wound for woof or warp; also all sewing silk, yarn of *bourre de soie* or silk waste, either pure or mixed with wool, down, or cotton:		
	a. Not dyed	8 roubles per pood.	£3 18*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	b. Dyed and printed	16 roubles per pood.	£7 17*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
90	Wool and down:		
	1. Raw, washed and not washed, not dyed: also flock wool and cloth shearings	1 rouble per pood.	9*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	2. Wool, not spun, of every kind, dyed; also artificial wool (shoddy, mungo), cloth rags, and wool waste dyed.	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	3. Wool, worked into strips:		
	a. Not dyed	3 roubles per pood.	£1 9*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	b. Dyed.....	4 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£2 4*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	4. Wool yarn, pure or mixed with cotton, flax, or hemp:		
	a. Not dyed	7 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£3 13*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	b. Dyed.....	9 roubles per pood.	£4 7*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
91	Cotton wadding, carded and gummed in sheets.....	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
92	Cotton yarn:		
	1. Up to No. 45, English measure:		
	a. Unbleached	3 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£1 15*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	b. Bleached and dyed (except that dyed with Turkey red).	4 roubles 70 kopecks per pood.	£2 5*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	c. Dyed with Turkey red	5 roubles per pood.	£2 9*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	2. Thinner than No. 45, English measure:		
	a. Unbleached	6 roubles per pood.	£2 19*s.* per cwt.
	b. Bleached and dyed	6 roubles per pood	£2 19*s.* per cwt.
	3. Sewing and knitting cotton.		
93	Lamp-wicks of cotton or other material	4 roubles per pood	£1 19*s* 2*d.* per cwt.
	IX.—METALS.		
94	Cast iron, in pigs and scrap	6 kopecks per pood	7*d.* per cwt.
95	Iron (and steel, § 97):		
	1. In bars, of all kinds, having a breadth of ¼ inch to 18 inches, and thickness or diameter up to 7 inches; also in blooms, puddled blooms, and mill bars.	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	NOTE.—Iron or steel of less than ¼ inch in breadth, thickness, or diameter is treated as wire.		
	2. Iron and steel rails	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	3. Iron and steel, in sheets and plates, having a breadth of 18 inches and upwards, and every kind of iron and steel having a thickness or diameter of 7 inches and upwards.	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	4. Scrap iron and steel	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
96	Tin plate, lacquered and not lacquered, also all kinds of sheet iron covered with zinc, copper, or any other metal. (See § 164.)	1 rouble 40 kopecks per pood.	13*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
97	Steel (see § 95, same as iron).		

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	IX.—METALS—Continued.		
98	Copper and brass; metallic alloys, such as pinchbeck, prince's metal, argentine, German silver, Britannia metal, &c., also nickel, cobalt, bismuth, cadmium, allumi-nium, and alloys of these:		
	1. In pigs, scrap, blooms, fillngs, &c	66 kopecks per pood.	6*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	2. In sheets, bars, or rods	1 rouble per pood..	9*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	Obs.—Copper and alloys of copper, rolled and in rods or bars, of ¼ inch or less in thickness or diameter, pay duty as wire (§ 167, Article 2).		
99	Tin:		
	1. In blocks, bars, and scrap	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	2. In sheets and as amalgam for mirrors	70 kopecks per pood.	6*s.* 10*d.* per cwt.
100	Quicksilver.....	2 roubles per pood	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
101	Lead:		
	1. In pigs of all kinds, litharge, and lead ashes of every description.	10 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* per cwt.
	2. In rolls, sheets, and pipes.....	20 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt.
102	Zinc or spelter:		
	1. In blocks	40 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	2. In sheets	70 kopecks per pood.	6*s.* 10*d.* per cwt.
	X.—DRUGS, &c.		
103	Gums, resins, and balsams:		
	1. Of all kinds, except those specially mentioned, caoutchouc and gutta-percha in bladders and pieces not worked; fluid caoutchouc; albumen of all kinds; camphor and manna.	33 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	2 Storax or common incense	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	3. Gum benzo.n, ambergris; Tolutan and Peruvian balsams.	4 roubles 40 kopecks per pood.	£2 3*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
104	White rosin, colophony, also asphaltum in slabs	11 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
105	Naphtha, black, raw, and not refined.....	17 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
106	Volatile oils for lighting purposes, viz, petroleum, kerosene, photogene, gasoline, &c., also benzine, refined naphtha, and paraffine paste for lubricating machinery.	60 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
107	Turpentine and oil of turpentine	33 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
108	Natural dyestuffs:		
	1. Vegetable: Avignon and buckthorn berries, pastel wood, quercitron, henna leaves, madder (in roots), turmeric (in roots and ground), alkanet (root), carthamus, gallnuts, and divi-divi.	6 kopecks per pood.	6*d.* per cwt.
	2. Tinctorial earths of all kinds, raw and calcined, viz, ochre, sienna, Verona green, bolus, and white chalk, refined.	....do	Do.
109	Dye-woods:		
	1. In logs and blocks, sumach in every form	....do	Do.
	2. Ground and bruised	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
110	Archil, lacmus, tournesol, arnatto, schuttgelb or woad-lake; kermes grains and catechu (terra japonica).	....do	Do.
111	Madder, ground.....	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
112	Indigo in every form except extract, § 119.....	3 roubles 30 kopeeks per pood.	£1 12*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
113	Cochineal in every form (except extract, see §119, Article 2).	3 roubles per pood..	£1 9*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
114	Prussian blue and Paris blue, ultramarine, natural and artificial; also blue used in washing.	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	X.—DRUGS, &c.—Continued.		
115	White lead and white of zinc	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
116	Red lead	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
117	Verdigris	2 roubles 75 kopecks per pood.	£1 7*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
118	Colors: Cupreous (except verdigris), as well as arsenical and cobalt colors (including smalt); colors of antimony (also gold sulphuret of antimony) and of chrome; also cinnabar.	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
119	Extracts of coloring materials:		
	1. Of all kinds, except those specially mentioned; garancine, flowers of madder, and all preparations of madder in powder.	2 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£1 4*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.
	2. Extracts of indigo, cochineal (carmine and all lakes), carthamine, and orchil.	5 roubles per pood.	£2 9*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
120	Aniline colors and all colors of coal tar; picric acid, and murexide, also extract of madder and madder lake.	15 roubles per pood	£7 7*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
121	Miniature colors of all kinds, in cakes, in powder, on shells and in bladders; cassius or golden purple and Indian ink.	5 roubles per pood	£2 9*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Miniature colors of every kind in cakes, imported in boxes handsomely finished or with ornaments, pay duty under § 229.		
122	Ink, ink powder, and blacking	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
123	Colors and dye stuff not specially mentioned, in lumps, pieces, or ground, dry, or prepared with water or oil.	... do ...	Do.
124	Antimony, in raw and metallic state	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
125	Borax, raw and refined	11 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
126	Tartar, raw and refined, cream of tartar, crystals of tartar, and tartrate of potash.	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
127	Sal ammoniac, carbonate of ammonia, and all salts of ammonia, raw and refined, as well as liquid ammonia.	... do ...	Do.
128	Sulphate of baryta in every form	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
129	Arsenic (metal), arsenical acid (white arsenic), yellow sulphide of arsenic, and red sulphide of arsenic (réalgar).	... do ...	Do.
	OBS.—Arsenic is only allowed to be imported in double casks or cases.		
130	Ferrocyanide of potassium; red prussiate of potash; chromate of potash, neutral and acid; also saltpeter, not refined.	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 6*d* per cwt.
	OBS.—Importation of refined saltpetre is prohibited.		
131	Alum, calcined and otherwise, and sulphate of alumina (substitute for alum).	25 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
132	Nitrate of soda; the condensed motherlye of Kreutznach waters; Vichy salts, and all natural salts not specially mentioned.	6 kopecks per pood.	6*d.* per cwt.
133	Silicates of sodium (natrium) and of potash (fusible glass) and preparations of fusible glass, soda, &c., for washing wool; also bicarbonate of soda.	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
134	Soda and potash:		
	1. Carbonate of soda, crystallized	15 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	2. Carbonate of soda, calcined; potash and pearlash.	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	3. Caustic soda and potash	45 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
135	Glauber's salts and carbonate and sulphate of magnesia, and pyroligneous and pyroacetate of lime.	15 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
136	Nitric and muriatic or hydrochloric acids and chloride of lime and bleaching liquor.	44 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
137	Organic acids and oxides:		
	1. Acids: Acetic, citric, oxalic, and tartaric; tannin, pyrogallic acid; also phosphoric oxide.	4 roubles per pood.	£1 19*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	X.—DRUGS, &c.—Continued.		
137	Organic acids and oxides—Continued: 2. Oxides: Of cobalt, of mercury; and stannic oxide; aluminium hydrate; barium, magnesium, and strontium.	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
138	Sulphuric acid (vitriol); sulphuret of carbon	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
139	Vitriols: 1. Of iron, or green copperas	do	Do.
	2. Of copper, or blue copperas (sulphate of copper); sulphate of zinc; Salzburg vitriol or double sulphate of iron and copper.	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
140	Acids, oxides, salts, and other chemicals not specially mentioned. OBS.—Boxes containing chemical reagents for laboratories pay under this §, together with the weight of the utensils and cases.	2 roubles per pood	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
141	Glue: 1. Isinglass of every kind, in lumps, sheets, etc., and gelatine for clearing wine.	5 roubles per pood.	£2 9*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	2. Joiner's glue and shoemakers' glue	11 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
142	Varnishes of spirit or oil	8 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£4 2*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
143	Bone-black	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
144	Oils: 1. Olive or seed oil, and all vegetable oils except those specially mentioned; oil of bones, fatty and burning oils; drying oil and seed oil with admixture of turpentine.	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	2. Essential scented oils, with or without trace of fat oils; oils used in medicine and perfumery.	13 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£6 9*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	3. Cocoanut and palm oil; also glycerine	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
145	Emery, graphite, and pumice-stone, powdered; bronzing powder, tripoli, hematite, colcothar, and other substances for polishing metals, &c., mixed with grease, *i. e.*, in the shape of thick paste and in any other form; also spread on paper or linen; paste for razor straps; putty for windows, and cement for metals, glass, and porcelain; patent knife-boards, whetstones, and grindstones. OBS.—Emery and pumice-stone in lumps pay only half duty, *i. e.*, 15 kopecks the pood.	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
146	Phosphorus	11 roubles per pood.	£5 7*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
147	Ether, chloroform, and collodium	5 roubles per pood.	£2 2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
148	Hops and extract of hops	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
149	Opium and lactucarium	11 roubles per pood.	£5 7*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
150	Aromatic waters, containing no alcohol, such as cherry-laurel water, peppermint water, orange-flower water, rose water, &c.	4 roubles 40 kopecks per pood.	£2 3*s.* per cwt.
151	Patent medicines, in a prepared form, permitted to be imported according to special list, which see.	10 roubles per pood, gr.	£4 18*s.* per cwt., §
	XI.—STONEWARE, POTTERY, &c.		
152	Alabaster goods, with or without ornaments	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
153	Gypsum, marble, porphyry, serpentine, slate, &c., worked, with or without ornaments. OBS. 1.—Slates for roofing are admitted free under § 8, Article 2. OBS. 2.—Marble steps and tombs (rough hewn and not polished) pay a duty of 20 kopecks per pood. GEN. OBS. TO §§ 152 AND 153.—If the bronze ornaments evidently constitute the principal value of the object, and cannot be separated from it, only half the duty charged on bronzeware is levied.	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XI.—STONEWARE, POTTERY, &c.—Continued.		
154	Pottery ware of common clay or sandstone:		
	1. All pottery ware, except that mentioned in Article 2.	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	2. Articles for the decoration of rooms, colored and gilt.	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
155	Earthenware:		
	1. White or of one color, dyed in the paste, without ornaments, although with a molded pattern.	85 kopecks per pood.	8*s.* 4*d.* per cwt.
	2. The same with patterns, rings, borders and edges of one color.	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	3. The same with gilding, painting, or with variegated patterns.	2 roubles 75 kopecks per pood.	£1 7*s.* per cwt.
156	Porcelain:		
	1. Porcelain vessels, white or of one color, with edges or borders colored or gilt, but without other ornaments.	4 roubles 40 kopecks per pood.	£2 3*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
	2. Porcelain vessels with painting or with patterns, colored or gilded, flowers or other ornaments, as well as objects of porcelain or biscuit, for decorating rooms, white or of one color, but without painting, gilding, or bronze ornaments.	8 roubles 80 kopecks per pood.	£4 6*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	3. Ornaments of porcelain, such as statuettes, garnitures for rooms and tables, candlesticks, and such like objects, with painting, gilding, or bronze ornaments.	17 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£8 12*s.* per cwt.
	OBS. 1.—Articles of so-called soft or English porcelain, which is semi-transparent, pay the same duty as real porcelain.		
	OBS. 2.—Crests and cyphers are not considered ornaments.		
	OBS. 3.—The boxes or cases in which porcelain is imported pay duty according to the material of which they are made.		
157	Glasswares:		
	1. Bottle-green glasswares, not ornamented, cut, or ground, although with cast letters and patterns.	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—All wine bottles imported in the Black and Azof Seas and to Bessarabia are admitted free.		
	2. Window glass of all kinds, white, half white, or bottle-green; and glassware, white, half white, not cut or ground, not ornamented, though with finished or ground bottoms, borders, and stoppers, and with cast patterns.	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	3. Window glass, colored, dyed in the paste, milk white, dimmed, reticulated, and articles of colored glass (dyed in the paste), or double glass (with colored coating), milk white, reticulated, dimmed (ground with sand), not ground, cut, or ornamented, without gilding or silvering, although with cast patterns and ground and finished stoppers, bottoms, and edges.	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	4. Articles of crystal or white glass, ground and cut, but not ornamented.	4 roubles 40 kopecks per pood.	£2 3*s.* per cwt.
	5. Articles of colored glass, of one color or coated (double), dimmed, reticulated, &c., cut and ground; also articles of every description of glass, with painting, gilding, silvering, and with patterns engraved or etched; also with bronze and other ornaments.	8 roubles 80 kopecks per pood.	£4 6*s.* per cwt.
	OBS.—If the bronze or nameats evidently constitute the principal value of the article, it pays duty as such.		

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XI.—STONEWARE, POTTERY, &c.—Continued.		
158	Mirrors and plates for mirrors:		
	Of a superficies—		
	Up to 100 square vershoks	6 kopecks per pound.	2¼*d.* per pound.
	From 101 to 200 square vershoks	¾ kopeck per vershok.	.162*d.* per inch.
	From 201 to 300 square vershoks	1 kopeck per vershok.	.217*d.* per inch.
	From 301 to 400 square vershoks	1½ kopeck per vershok.	.325*d.* per inch.
	From 401 to 500 square vershoks	2 kopecks per vershok.	.434*d.* per inch.
	From 501 to 600 square vershoks	2¼ kopecks per vershok.	.488*d.* per inch.
	From 601 to 800 square vershoks	2½ kopecks per vershok.	.542*d.* per inch.
	From 801 to 1,200 square vershoks	2¾ kopecks per vershok.	.597*d.* per inch.
	Above 1,200 square vershoks	33 roubles per piece	£5 4*s.* 6*d.* per piece.
	OBS. 1.—Mirrors and glass plates for mirrors, broken in transit, pay duty separately on each piece measuring more than 25 square vershoks, calculating the superficies by the largest regular quadrangle that could be cut out of the piece. Broken pieces of not more than 25 square vershoks are admitted free.		
	OBS. 2.—Mirror glasses, ground, without amalgam, pay duty according to the above scale for mirrors, with a reduction of 30 per cent. on the duty. Mirror glass, not ground, is admitted under § 157, Article 2.		
	OBS. 3.—Mirror frames pay under § 181, Obs. 2.		
	XII.—METALS, WROUGHT.		
159	Gold, silver, and platinum:		
	1. Gold articles of every description, gold jewelry without stones, as well as with stones of every kind, real and imitation, pearls, &c.	36 roubles 30 kopecks per pound.	£6 7*s.* per pound.
	2. Silver and silver gilt articles of every kind, silver jewelry work, with or without gilding, with stones, pearls, &c.	2 roubles 42 kopecks per pound.	8*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	3. Platinum—articles of every kind	18 roubles 15 kopecks per pound.	£3 3*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	4. Lace work of gold, silver, or tinsel; gold and silver drawn and spun, spangles, and other ornaments, also ribbon of gold and silver.	6 roubles per pound	£1 1*s.* per pound.
	5. Gold and silver leaf, single and double, in books, together with weight of books.	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pound.	4*s.* 3½*d* per pound.
160	Manufactures of bronze, plated silver, and of various alloys of copper:		
	1. Articles of bronze and other alloys of copper (except brass), lacquered or not, entire or in parts, weighing more than 1 pound each.	13 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£6 9*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	2. Articles of bronze and other alloys of copper (except brass), oxidized, gilt or silvered; all articles of base metals, gilt or silvered, weighing more than 1 pound each: and plated silver of every kind.	22 roubles per pood	£10 16*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	3. Articles of bronze and other alloys of copper (except brass); also of common metals, gilt and silvered, weighing less than 1 pound each.	44 roubles per pood	£21 12*s.* 4*d.* per cwt.
161	Manufactures of copper and brass (except those specially mentioned, see §§ 168, 175), as well as all domestic utensils of copper and brass, in combination with wood, iron, tin-plate, leather, &c.	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pood.	£1 12*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XII.—METALS, WROUGHT—Continued.		
162	Cast-iron work:		
	1. Iron castings without any finish, such as fire bars, plates, pipes, beams, pillars, and cast iron appurtenances for railways.	55 kopecks per pood.	5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	2. All utensils of cast iron, enameled.....	88 kopecks per pood.	8*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	3. Articles of cast iron, turned, polished, filed, bronzed, or ornamented with other metals, or not ornamented, or with parts of wood, bronze, &c.	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	Obs.—Under article 3 of this § is included every kind of work in malleable iron.		
163	Iron and steel smiths' work, wrought or cast, filed or not filed along the edges or rims, but not finished off or polished, such as anchors, nails, hooks, bells, mortars, and all appurtenances for railways and their rolling-stock.	88 kopecks per pood.	8*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
164	Iron and steel work in boiler-making: boilers, reservoirs, cisterns, boxes, bridges, pipes, and all work in sheet iron and steel except that mentioned specially in § 96 and § 166.	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
165	Iron and steel articles (except those specially mentioned), turned, polished, filed, fitted, bronzed, or worked with parts and ornaments of wood, copper, and bronze, or without these, if the weight per piece is—		
	a. Over 5 pounds (Russ)	... do	Do.
	b. Under 5 pounds (Russ)	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.
166	Manufactures of tin:		
	1. All tin articles, or articles of sheet iron, enameled, tinned, covered with zinc or other common metal (see § 164).	2 roubles 75 kopecks per pood.	£1 7*s.* per cwt.
	2. The above articles covered with gilding, painting, and other ornaments.	5 roubles 50 kopecks per pood.	£2 14*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
167	Wire:		
	1. Steel or iron, of ¼-inch diameter or less	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	2. Copper, brass, and wire of all metallic alloys, less than ¼ inch in diameter, tinned or not tinned, covered with zinc (galvanized), or with other metals (except those in § 168); wire nails, pegs for pianofortes, and metallic wires, together with the weight of the reels on which they are wound; also wire-rigging and submarine wire cable.	1 rouble 65 kopecks per pood.	16*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
168	Manufactures of wire, and wire covered with caoutchouc, cotton, silk, or other thread; frames for umbrellas or parasols, and bird-cages of wire:		
	1. Iron and steel	2 roubles 75 kopecks per pood.	£1 7*s.* per cwt.
	2. Copper or brass.....	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pood.	£1 12*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
169	Needles of steel and iron:		
	1. Sewing and all other needles, except those named below.	55 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 11*d.* per pound.
	2. Knitting, packing, and threading, saddlers', and for harness and sail-makers.	30 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* per pound.
170	Cutlery:		
	1. Set in common materials, also scissors, tweezers, shears, and knife-blades, except sheep-shears, finished and not finished.	13 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£6 9*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	2. Set in plated silver and other metallic compositions, in ivory and bone, in tortoise-shell, mother-of-pearl, and in common materials, but with ornaments of bronze, gold, silver, ivory, bone, tortoise-shell, and mother-of-pearl.	26 roubles 40 kopecks per pood.	£12 19*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	3. Peasants' pocket-knives, set in metals or in other cheap materials.	6 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£3 5*s.* per cwt.
	Obs.—Cutlery, set in gold, silver, or platinum, pays under § 159.		

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XII.—METALS, WROUGHT—Continued.		
171	Swords, daggers, sword-blades and other blades for side-arms; fire-arms (air-guns are prohibited) and all appurtenances.	20 roubles per pood.	£9 16*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Fire-arms imported in boxes and cases with fittings pay duty inclusive of weight of these.		
172	Scythes and sickles of every kind, knives for chaff-cutters, mowers, sheep-shears, spades, shovels, rakes, pick-axes, and pitch-forks.	55 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
173	Tools used in the arts, trades, factories, mills, and works of all kinds.	88 kopecks per pood.	8*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
174	Type for printers, matrices for casting type, metallic and wooden blocks, and all forms for typographies.	33 kopecks per pood.	3*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
175	Machinery and apparatus; also models (except agricultural, see § 35):		
	1. Copper or brass machinery or apparatus; also copper or brass parts and fittings of every kind of machinery.	1 rouble 65 kopecks per pood.	16*s.* 1*d.* per cwt.
	2. Portable engines, tenders, steam fire-engines and other appliances against fire; also all manufacturing machinery and apparatus (not specially mentioned) of cast or wrought iron or steel, with parts made of other materials or without such parts.	90 kopecks per pood.	8*s.* 10*d.* per cwt.
	3. Locomotives.....	1 rouble 40 kopecks per pood.	13*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Duplicate parts of machinery and apparatus, and also indispensable fittings thereof imported together with them, are admitted at same rates of duty. Those parts imported separately pay duty according to the paragraphs dealing with them.		
176	Articles of tin, zinc, or Brittania metal:		
	1. Unpolished and not painted.....	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pood.	10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	2. Polished and painted	2 roubles 75 kopecks per pood.	£1 7*s.* per cwt.
177	Lead, worked, except articles specially mentioned (§ 101), shot and articles of type-metal (composition of lead and antimony).	88 kopecks per pood.	8*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
178	White and yellow tinsel in books, together with the weight of the books, and foil of every kind.	17 kopecks per pound.	7*d.* per pound.
	XIII.—MANUFACTURES OF WOOD, INDIA RUBBER, PAPER, AND STRAW.		
179	Corkwood, worked, such as corks, bungs, &c	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.
180	Joiners and turners' work:		
	1. Of common wood, not varnished, not polished, and without applications or veneer, including bird-cages of wood and wooden pegs for boots.	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Small turned articles of wood weighing less than one pound each pay under Article 2 of this section.		
	2. The same polished, varnished, with applications or veneer, gilt, silvered, or with gilt or silvered ornaments.	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Furniture, dutiable under Articles 1 and 2 of this section, covered with leather or any woven material, pays 25 per cent. above the duties named.		
	3. The same, with ornaments of bronze and other materials, with incrustations of wood, copper, steel, mother of pearl, ivory, tortoise-shell, &c., excepting articles weighing less than 3 pounds, which are admitted under section 227.	6 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£3 5*s.* per cwt.
	GEN. OBS.—Handles, rings, legs, rollers, &c., are not considered as bronze ornaments.		

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XIII.—MANUFACTURERS OF WOOD, &c.—Continued.		
181	Carving in wood of all kinds, including frames, without mirrors or pictures. OBS. 1.—The same duty is levied on articles of felt, oakum, papier-maché and carton-pierre, having the appearance of carvers' or turners' work in wood (similar work, not painted or polished, cleared by § 183, Article 7. OBS. 2.—Frames, with mirrors and pictures, if such cannot be weighed separately, pay 22 kopecks per arshin, reckoning part of an arshin as a whole one.	4 roubles 15 kopecks per pood.	£1 16*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
182	India rubber or caoutchouc, and gutta percha, worked:		
	1. Articles of India rubber and of gutta percha, without admixture of other materials.	3 roubles 65 kopecks per pood.	£1 12*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	2. The same, with admixture of other materials, except those below mentioned.	6 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£3 5*s.* per cwt.
	3. Tissues of India rubber thread, covered with other materials; manufactures of such tissues, and all ready-made clothes of India rubber.	24 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£11 17*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	4. Boots and shoes of India rubber and of gutta-percha, whether in combination or not with leather, &c.	11 roubles per pood	£5 7*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
183	Paper:		
	1. Unsized of every kind, white and colored, without ornaments; also if ruled for music, and paper for embroidery, without patterns; and card-board, glazed.	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.
	2. Sized paper of every kind, white and colored, without ornaments; also paper and transparent cotton tissues for tracing.	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pood.	£1 12*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
	3. Paper-hangings, and borders for the same ...	5 roubles per pood.	£2 19*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	4. Paper for writing and printing of every kind, with ornaments, such as gilding, silvering, embossed, borders, crests, cyphers, pictures, etc.; also envelopes, lamp-shades (paper), and artificial flowers.	8 roubles 80 kopecks per pood.	£4 6*s.* per cwt.
	5. Paper for cigarettes, tissue paper; also paper with ornaments and drawings for printers, book-binders, and confectioners' work; sheets with pictures for toys; paper for embroidery with patterns, colored and not colored.	6 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£3 5*s.* per cwt.
	6. Office and copying books, bound or not, and all kinds of book-binder's work, except such as come under § 227.	12 roubles 10 kopecks per pood.	£5 18*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
	7. Pasteboard, in sheets and rolls (except that mentioned in Articles 1 and 8 of this section), paper bobbins for winding silk, asphalt for roofing, paper covered with tar on one side, and for destruction of insects; also articles of papier-maché and carton-pierre, not polished nor painted.	50 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 11*d.* per cwt.
	8. Wood pulp, pressed in sheets, not worked, papier-maché and carton-pierre, not worked.	22 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Articles of papier-maché and carton-pierre, lacquered and polished, pay under § 181; but when ornamented with various materials, under § 227.		
184	All articles of straw or of wood shavings (chip), mixed or not with horse-hair, silk, cotton, flax, or hemp (except hats of straw or of shavings, § 223).	88 kopecks per pound.	3*s.* 1*d.* per pound.
	XIV.—MANUFACTURES OF HAIR, LEATHER, ETC.		
185	Human hair, worked.....	66 kopecks per pound.	2*s.* 3*d.* per pound.
186	Horse-hair and bristles, worked; all tissues of horse-hair, sieves of horse-hair, articles in bristles set in wood, without veneer, brushes of bristles, and paint-brushes.	2 roubles 44 kopecks per pood.	£1 4*s.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Shaving-brushes and all articles in bristles, set in various other materials, pay under § 227.		

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XIV.—MANUFACTURES OF HAIR, &c.—Continued.		
187	Leather goods:		
	1. Boots and shoes of every kind, except of caoutchouc, and except ladies' shoes of silk tissues.	60 kopecks per pound.	2*s.* 1*d.* per pound.
	2. Ladies' boots and shoes of silk tissues, ready-made or partly finished.	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pound.	4*s.* 2*d.* per pound.
	3. Gloves of leather of all kind (except fencing-gloves, see below), and all articles of chamois leather and kid, except boots, shoes, or surgical appliances (§ 233).	2 roubles 44 kopecks per pound.	8*s.* 7*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—Gloves, cut out but not stitched, pay half duty.		
	4. Harness and appurtenances; saddlery, portmanteaux, traveling bags, articles of leather used by sportsmen, and such like articles; boxing-gloves, books, and portfolios of leather; and generally all manufactures of leather not specially mentioned.	45 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 7*d.* per pound.
	XV.—MANUFACTURES, WOVEN, PLAITED, AND KNITTED.		
188	Cables, rope, and twine of hemp, flax, tow, New Zealand flax, and other fibers, tarred and not tarred; also fishing nets.	44 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 4*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Rope, twine, &c., with admixture of silk, wool, silk-waste, or cotton, pays as galloons, braids, &c., according to material.		
189	Linen and batiste:		
	1. Linen, coarse and bleached, hempen and flaxen, either pure or mixed with cotton, with the exception of specially noted.	70 kopecks per pound.	2*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	2. Batiste and lawn, pure or mixed with cotton ..	1 rouble 50 kopecks per pound.	5*s.* 3*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—Linen and batiste, dyed, printa, striped linen, and pocket-handkerchiefs of linen or batiste, pay the same duty, with addition of 20 per cent. All kerchiefs with ornaments sewn on, or printed, or with lace sewn round, pay duty under § 219, Article 2.		
190	Flax and hemp tissues, twilled or with woven patterns, mixed or not mixed with cotton, such as table linen and towels of every description.	70 kopecks per pound.	2*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
191	Drills of every kind..... ..	50 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 9*d.* per pound.
192	Sail-cloth, ticking for bedding and for furniture, carpet textures of flax and hempen tissues, mixed or not mixed with cotton.	17 kopecks per pound.	7*d.* per pound.
193	Flax and hemp knitted and plaited goods (hoisery), except galloon and braids (213), buttons (220), net (214), and lace (215).	55 kopecks per pound.	5*s.* 5*d.* per pound.
194	Wax and oil cloth of every kind (except of silk 200) and manufactures of the same; also canvas with prepared ground for painting, hemp hose for fire engines, hempen buckets, and tarpaulin.	12 kopecks per pound.	5*d.* per pound.
195	Bags of jute or linen and other coarse material for bags and packing.	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Matting, stair-matting, &c., of hemp, jute, or manilla, &c., come under this heading, but pay 50 per cent. more duty, *i. e.*, 3 roubles.		
196	Stuffs, scarfs, shawls, handkerchiefs, and ribbons of pure silk, as well as of silk waste, without admixture of cotton, wool, or such like materials, including foulards, plain, dyed in the warp; velvet, plush, chenilla of pure or mixed silk, and ribbons of the same; also silk gauze for sieves.	5 roubles 50 kopecks per pound.	19*s.* 3*d.* per pound.
197	Foulards, printed in the cloth, in pieces or as handkerchiefs.	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pound.	11*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
198	Stuffs, scarfs, shawls, ribbons, &c., of mixed silk (with warp or woof of any other material) as well as of bourre de soie with mixture of cotton, flax, hemp, &c.	2 roubles 44 kopecks per pound.	8*s.* 6*d.* per pound.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XV.—MANUFACTURES, WOVEN, &c.—Continued.		
199	Galloon and gimp trimmings of pure or mixed silk; manufactures of silk, knitted or plaited; stockings (hoisery), with or without admixture of other stuffs, or of bugles and beads, with the exception of buttons (220), of net (214), and of lace (215); also silk canvas.	1 rouble 10 kopecks per pound.	3*s.* 10*d.* per pound.
200	Wax and oil cloth of silk	....do	Do.
201	Woolen blankets and horse-cloths	44 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
202	Woolen stuffs of combed wool or goat's hair, plain, woven of various colors and embroidered, with or without admixture of cotton, except those specially mentioned in § 201 and §§ 204–207.	90 kopecks per pound.	3*s.* 2*d.* per pound.
203	The same printed, pay duty under § 202, with 30 per cent. additional.		
	GEN. OBS. to §§ 202 and 203.		
	1. Unmilled stuffs of combed wool or goat's hair, having a woof or warp of silk or silk waste, pay as silk goods; but if the admixture of silk consists only of patterns or stripes woven in, or embroidered, such goods pay 20 per cent. in addition to the duty in § 202 and § 203.		
	2. Handkerchiefs, scarfs, counterpanes, plaids, &c, of unmilled textures of combed wool or goat's hair, except those specially mentioned in § 205, pay the same duty as the material of which they are made.		
204	Bunting, white woolen stuffs for miller's sieves, and sashes of wool of every kind, without admixture of silk.	25 kopecks per pound.	11*d.* per pound.
205	Shawls, handkerchiefs, sashes and scarfs, Turkish or cashmere, also French terno and half terno, as well as detached borders, edges, and other similar stuffs, of pure wool, or mixed with cotton, silk, or bourre de soie.	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pound.	11*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
206	Unmilled woolen stuffs for use in manufactories, bags for oil-pressing, for sugar bakers, &c.; cloths of peculiar make for factories, cloth list and all kinds of felt, not dyed, dyed and printed.	11 kopecks per pound.	4*d.* per pound.
207	Woolen carpets of every kind	35 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 3*d.* per pound.
208	Fezes or Turkish caps of wool, embroidered or not with spangles.	2 roubles per dozen	7*s.* per dozen.
209	Woolen galloon or braid, plaited and knitted goods of every kind (hosiery); gloves, stockings, tapes, and ribbons of pure wool or mixed with hemp, flax, or cotton, excepting buttons (§ 220) and lace (§ 215).	55 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 11*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—Galloon, braid, and hoisery of wool containing a mixture of silk in the form of ornaments pay 20 per cent. in addition to the duty under the present section.		
210	Cotton tissues, gray, bleached, dyed (except those dyed Turkey red) and woven, of various colors:		
	1. Having up to 8 square arshins to a pound (6,272 square inches).	31 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 1*d.* per pound.
	2. Having 8 to 12 square arshins to a pound (6,272–9,408 square inches).	42 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	3. Having 12 to 16 square arshins to a pound (9,408–12,554 square inches).	55 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 11*d.* per pound.
	4. Having more than 16 square arshins to a pound (12,544 square inches).	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pound.	4*s.* 2*d.* per pound.
211	The same, printed or dyed Turkey red:		
	1. Having up to 8 square arshins to a pound (6,272 square inches).	55 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 11*d.* per pound.
	2. Having 8 to 12 square arshins to a pound (6,272–9,400 square inches.)	66 kopecks per pound.	2*s* 3*d.* per pound.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XV.—MANUFACTURES, WOVEN, &c.—Continued.		
211	Cotton tissues, printed or dyed, Turkey red—Cont'd.		
	3. Having 12–16 square arshins to a pound (9,408–12,544 square inches.)	83 kopecks per pound.	2*s.* 1½*d.* per pound.
	4. Having more than 16 arshins to a pound (12,544 square inches.)	1 rouble 32 kopecks per pound.	4*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—Cotton tissues of every kind with ornaments of straw, gold, silver, tinsel, or other material, and if cut out for ladies' dresses (coupons de robes), pay under Article 4 of this §.		
212	Cotton velvet, plush, and plush ribbons	50 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 9*d.* per pound.
213	Cotton galloon, or braid and plaited or knitted goods of every kind (hosiery), chenilla, and chenilla goods; cotton canvas, without embroidery commenced on it, with exception of buttons (§ 220), of net (214) and of lace (215).	40 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 5*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—Galloon work of flax or hemp pays duty under this paragraph.		
214	Tulle (net) of every kind:		
	1. For furniture (antigras or antimacassars), with patterns woven in or embroidered, and curtains of net or muslin.	45 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 7*d.* per pound.
	2. Tulle (net) of every kind, except that above mentioned, in the piece, plain and figured with patterns (woven in or embroidered), for ladies' dresses	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pound.	7*s.* 9*d.* per pound.
215	Lace of every kind, of cotton, flax, hemp, wool, or silk (blonde).	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 1*d.* per pound.
216	Pure cotton textures, Turkish, such as boria, kindiak, basma, kumatch, charshaw, chember, and other coarse cotton stuffs, as well as Turkish towels and sashes, chember handkerchief, pashtemali and manidj aladja, common, and articles made of such stuffs.	6 kopecks per pound.	2*d.* per pound.
217	Cotton textures mixed with silk, such as sham aladja, manidj aladja, with mixture of silk, ghézé, ghermesind, kutnia sashes, and pashtemali, half or whole silk; also articles of these stuffs of Turkish origin.	66 kopecks per pound.	2*s.* 3½*d.* per pound.
218	Cotton and half-silk goods of Turkish origin, interwoven with gold, silver or tinsel, with Asiatic patterns.	1 rouble 65 kopecks per pound.	5*s.* 9*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—§§ 216–218. These duties are when imported by ports of Black and Azoff Seas. All other cotton, silk, or mixed goods of Turkish origin, not specially named; also testemal muslin, printed handkerchiefs, pay the same duty as goods of European origin.		
	XVI.—VARIOUS MANUFACTURES.		
219	Ready-made clothing:		
	1. All ready-made clothing, except that mentioned below and in §§ 189 and 190.	1 rouble 50 kopecks per pound.	5*s.* 3*d.* per pound.
	2. Clothing of linen and batiste, and all kinds with lace sewn round or upon; also all embroideries (except hand-made lace, § 215).	2 roubles per pound.	7*s.* per pound.
	3. Men's clothing, except such as is of velvet, velveteen, or other silk and half-silk textures.	1 rouble 30 kopecks per pound.	4*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	4. Dresses of cloth or woolen stuffs, with fittings or quite plain.	2 roubles per pound.	7*s.* per pound.
	5. Clothing of all descriptions, of velvet, velveteen, and silk or mixed stuffs, with or without parts sewn on of other materials; also all clothing of which the principal part is woven texture.	7 roubles per pound.	£1 4*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	6. Dresses and other feminine attire (except those mentioned above), without ornaments, such as are noted below.	2 roubles 25 kopecks per pound.	7*s.* 11*d.* per pound.
	7. The same, with ornaments of ribbons, velvet, silk cords, &c., feathers, fur, embroidery, and lace.	3 roubles 50 kopecks per pound.	12*s.* 3*d.* per pound.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XVI.—VARIOUS MANUFACTURES—Continued.		
219	Ready-made clothing—Continued.		
	8. Women's hats and other head-dresses, with ornaments of ribbons, flowers, feathers, &c.	15 roubles per pound.	£2 12*s.* 6*d.* per pound.
	OBS. 1.—Fur sewn up, or fur clothing, not covered with cloth, &c., pay duty under § 85, according to the kind of fur, with the addition of 50 per cent. to the duty. Fur clothing, covered with some cloth or other, also fur caps, pay duty thus: Men's caps, covered with cloth, under Article 3 of this section, and women's hats under Article 4; if covered with velvet, silk, &c., under Article 5; with a deduction of 50 per cent. off goods under this last article.		
	OBS. 2.—Counterpanes, curtains, blinds, and such like, hemmed and quilted, pay duty on the principal material used in the making.		
220	Buttons:		
	1. Of bronze or metal, excepting gold, silver, or platinum (§ 159).	55 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 11*d.* per pound.
	2. Of flax, cotton, wool, or silk of every kind.....	33 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* per pound.
	3. Of porcelain, glass, mother of pearl, wood, bone, and all other buttons.	17 kopecks per pound.	7*d.* per pound.
221	Ostrich feathers, marabout feathers, feathers of birds of paradise, military plumes, plumes of every kind, for hats for men and women (bonnets), and artificial flowers, excepting of paper (183, Article 4), or of leather (187, Article 4), together with the weight of the pasteboard boxes.	6 roubles 60 kopecks per pound.	£1 3*s.* 1*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—The component parts of artificial flowers, not put together, pay half the above rate.		
222	Bugles and beads of glass or metal:		
	1. On strings and not worked up	1 rouble 80 kopecks per pood.	17*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.
	2. In articles of various kinds and set	37 kopecks per pound.	1*s.* 3*d.* per pound.
223	Hats (bonnets) and caps:		
	1. Hats of down, half down, silk, or felt	1 rouble per piece.	3*s.* 2*d.* per piece.
	2. Hats (bonnets), of leather, lacquered, of wood chip, of wood bark, common and white (rice straw), of printed pasteboard, in imitation of Italian straw, of cotton and hemp tape, of the fiber of the palm tree, and such like vegetable substances; except hats of straw mixed or not mixed with silk or other yarn, without ribbons, feathers, or flowers.	1 rouble, 45 kopecks per pound.	5*s.* 1*d.* per pound.
	3. Hats and bonnets of straw, not trimmed, without ribbons, feathers, or flowers.	3 roubles 65 kopecks per pound.	12*s.* 10*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—Hats and bonnets of straw and of any other material, when trimmed with ribbons, feathers, or flowers, pay under § 219, Article 8.		
	4. Caps of every kind without fur. (Caps with fur pay under § 219.)	40 kopecks per piece.	1*s.* 3*d.* per piece.
	5. Common peasants' hats (of felted lamb's wool) and caps, trimmed, or not, with lambskin; imported overland.	17 kopecks per piece.	6½*d.* per piece.
224	Umbrellas and parasols, and walking-sticks with umbrellas:		
	1. Men's umbrellas, covered with silk, and ladies' umbrellas of silk, double (with lining).	1 rouble 65 kopecks per piece.	5*s.* 3*d.* per piece.
	2. Men's umbrellas covered with woolen stuffs and ladies' umbrellas of silk without lining, and of wool.	66 kopecks per piece.	2*s.* 1*d.* per piece.
	3. All other umbrellas and parasols, except the above mentioned, covered or not.	33 kopecks per piece.	1*s.* 1*d.* per piece.
225	Cosmetics:		
	1. Aromatic spirituous waters: eau de cologne, eau des Alpes, Hungary water, and eau de Melisse.	11 roubles per pood.	£5 8*s.* per cwt.
	2. Scents, toilet vinegar, and perfumed waters of every kind, except those mentioned above and in § 150; also pomatum of every kind.	33 roubles per pood.	£16 2*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XVI.—VARIOUS MANUFACTURES—Continued.		
225	Cosmetics—Continued.		
	3. Whitening, rouge, face-powder, fumigating pastils and compositions, tooth powder, sachels of every kind, all cosmetics and perfumery not specially mentioned, together with weight of boxes and of packing.	13 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£6 9s. 3d. per cwt.
	Obs.—Cosmetics imported under this section in vessels of cut glass or porcelain, with gilding, painting, metallic stoppers or fastenings, and such like ornaments, pay duty inclusive of the weight of such vessels.		
226	Soap:		
	1. Scented (cosmetic), either in liquid or solid state, or in powder.	6 roubles per pood, gross.	£2 12s. per cwt. gross.
	2. Of every kind, except the above.....	1 rouble 50 kopecks per pood.	14s. 8d. per cwt.
227	Small wares for the toilet, for stands (what-nots), ornaments for the table, or for walls, of various materials, having an independent use or application, and not specially mentioned:		
	1. Valuable, composed partly of alluminium, mother of pearl, coral, tortoise-shell, ivory, enamel, porcelain, amber, and such other valuable materials, as well as of bronze, of gilt or silver-plated metals, and metallic alloys.	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pound.	4s. 2d. per pound.
	2. Common, of horn and bone; likewise of every material with parts, settings, or ornaments of common metals and alloys, of horn, bone, wood, common stones, glass, meerschaum, whalebone, jet, and similar cheap substances.	37 kopecks per pound.	1s. 3d. per pound.
	Obs. 1.—Articles of which gold, silver, or platinum evidently forms the principal value pay the duty on manufactures of gold and silver.		
	Obs. 2.—Wooden articles with ornaments of bronze and incrustations, weighing more than three pounds each, pay under § 180, Article 3; those weighing under three pounds pay under Articles 1 and 2 of this section, according to the materials that constitute the principal value of the ornaments or incrustations.		
	Obs. 3.—The cases in which the above articles are imported pay according to the material they are made of.		
228	Children's toys of every kind, children's cards with the letters of the alphabet, &c.	Do.....	Do.
229	Appurtenances of the writing table and materials for drawing and painting not otherwise mentioned, such as pencils, pens (including metallic pens), penholders, wafers, pencil-cutters, &c., together with the weight of the boxes in which the are imported.	33 kopecks per pood.	2s. 1d. per cwt.
	Obs.—Gold and silver pencil cases, &c., pay under § 159.		
230	Coral, real, of one piece, and also coral in the mass, pierced, on strings, in chaplets and cut, but not set in precious metals or other materials.	3 roubles 30 kopecks per pood.	11s. 6d. per cwt.
231	Balances (weights and scales) of all kinds, with fittings.	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1s. 7d. per cwt.
	Obs.—Decimal balances, with fittings, weighing more than 3 poods each pay as machinery under § 175, Article 2.		
232	Musical instruments:		
	1. Pianofortes and organs not portable:		
	a. Clavicorde and cottage pianos (except royals), pianinos and organs not portable, except church.	66 roubles per piece.	£10 9s. per piece.
	b. Royals and church organs	110 roubles per piece.	£17 8s. 4d. per piece.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XVI.—VARIOUS MANUFACTURES—Continued.		
232	Musical instruments—Continued.		
	2. Ordinary organs, harmoniums, positives, and harps.	11 roubles per piece.	£1 14*s.* 10*d.* per piece.
	3. All musical instruments not specially mentioned and appurtenances to musical instruments, imported separately, such as bows, strings of gut and of silk (metallic strings § 167), keys and hammers (pegs for pianos § 167), metronomes, tuning-forks, &c.	17 kopecks per pound.	7*s.* 7*d.* per pound.
	OBS.—Duty on musical instruments is taken with the weight of cases in which they are packed.		
233	Instruments, mathematical, drawing, and all physical, chemical, and surgical instruments, geographical globes, manometers, water-meters, gas meters, water-guages, photographic apparatus, spectacles, eye-glasses, telescopes and opera-glasses set in common materials, jointly with the weight of cases, boxes, pocket-cases, &c., in which they are imported.	6 roubles 60 kopecks per pood.	£3 5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Spectacles, &c., set in gold, silver, or platinum pay under § 159, and when set in mother of pearl, tortoise-shell, ivory, and other costly materials, and if ornamented with enamel, gilding, or silver, under § 227, Article 1.		
234	Watchmaker's goods:		
	1. Works of watches and of clocks for the wall, for mantel-pieces, for travelers, and for the table, without cases, or separately from their cases.	75 kopecks per piece.	2*s.* 4*d.* per piece.
	OBS.—The outer cases pay according to the material of which they are made, and if the internal works cannot be separated from the cases, such watches and clocks pay, inclusively of the weight of the cases, the duty leviable on the cases, according to the material of which they are made.		
	2. Watches and chronometers, gold and gilted ...	1 rouble 45 kopecks.	4*s.* 7*d.* per piece.
	3. Watches and chronometers of silver, and all others, except of gold or gilt.	75 kopecks per piece.	2*s.* 4*d.* per piece.
	4. Wooden clocks, with wheels of brass or wood..	33 kopecks per piece.	1*s.* 1*d.* per piece.
	5. Clocks for towers.....	18 roubles 15 kopecks per piece.	£2 19*s.* per piece.
	6. Parts of clocks and watches not put together, such as springs, wheels, handles, faces, watch-keys (except gold and silver, § 159), and the parts of Carcel lamps.	10 kopecks per pound.	4*d.* per pound.
235	Carriages:		
	1. Carriages on springs, large, such as coaches, landaus, diligence, and omnibus.	110 roubles per piece.	£17 8*s.* 4*d.* per piece.
	2. Light carriages on springs, such as calèches, phaetons, dog-carts, cabs, &c.	77 roubles per piece.	£12 3*s.* 10*d.* per piece.
	3. Spring-carts for heavy work, such as vans, wagons, also traveling carriages with back springs only.	33 roubles per piece.	£5 4*s.* 6*d.* per piece.
	4. Carriages without springs, of every kind; small carriages for children (perambulators) on springs.	11 roubles per piece.	£1 14*s.* 10*d.* per piece.
	OBS.—Perambulators, &c., without springs pay under § 228.		
	5. Detached parts of the above, wheels, lamps, &c., (except axles, springs, and other fittings specially mentioned).	5 roubles per pood..	£2 9*s.* 2*d.* per cwt.
236	Railway cars and trucks:		
	1. Trucks, flat, and coal trucks, per axle . . .	82 roubles 50 kopecks per axle.	£13 11*s.* 3*d.* per axle.
	2. Goods vans, covered.....	121 roubles per axle.	£18 13*s.* 2*d.* per axle.
	3. Passenger cars, third-class, also luggage vans, and postal cars.	192 roubles 50 kopecks per axle.	£25 19*s.* 7*d.* per axle.

PART I.—*Import duties*—Continued.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Articles.	Russian.	English equivalents.
	XVI.—VARIOUS MANUFACTURES—Continued.		
236	Railway cars and trucks—Continued.		
	4. Passenger cars, second-class	247 roubles 50 kopeck per axle.	£39 3*s.* 9*d.* per axle.
	5. Passenger cars, combination, first and second class.	302 roubles 50 kopecks per axle.	£47 17*s.* 11*d.* per axle.
	6. Passenger cars, first-class	357 roubles 50 kopecks per axle.	£56 12*s.* 1*d.* per axle.
	7. Tramway cars:		
	a. Drawn by two horses	220 roubles per piece.	£34 16*s.* 8*d.* per piece.
	b. Drawn by one horse	165 roubles per piece.	£26 2*s.* 6*d.* per piece.
237	Beds and pillows stuffed with feathers, down, hair, or wool, addressed to persons who have returned from abroad.	1 rouble 20 kopecks per pood.	11*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
	OBS.—Beds and bedding brought by persons from abroad among their household effects are free. Except in these two cases the importation of bedding and pillows is prohibited.		
238	Candles, torches, and tapers of every kind	2 roubles per pood.	19*s.* 7*d.* per cwt.
239	Lucifer matches of every kind	1 rouble 82 kopecks per pood.	17*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.
240	Sealing-wax and red tar	2 roubles 20 kopecks per pood.	£1 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
241	Ecclesiastical ornaments and objects, stuffs with ecclesiastical emblems and images, are admitted under their respective paragraphs in the tariff, but only with the permission of the supreme authorities of the church.		

PART II.—GOODS THE IMPORTATION OF WHICH IS PROHIBITED.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Description of goods.	Duty.	
		Russian.	English equivalents.
242	Russian coins, copper or silver, and all foreign coins of low standard.	Prohibited.	
243	Gunpowder, ingredients for gunpowder, and all fulminating compositions; also saltpeter, refined.		
244	Military stores, guns, mortars, shells, shot, &c.		
245	Air-arms, acting without gunpowder: also canes, sticks, and pipes with daggers, swords, and other concealed weapons.		
246	All playing-cards		
247	Canceled.		
248	Bedding and pillows, except brought by passengers or addressed to persons who have returned from abroad (§ 237).		
249	Fishermen's berries or baccae coculli indici		
250	Oil of bitter almonds		
251	Powder for clearing wine		
252	Selenite (for dyeing hair)		
253	Spirits distilled from corn, imported in casks		
	OBS.—Goods of which the importation is prohibited only in certain ports of the empire, or which are admitted under certain restrictions and by special permission, are mentioned under corresponding heads of the tariff.		

PART III.—EXPORT DUTIES.

Paragraph in the Russian.	Description of goods.	Duty. Russian.	Duty. English equivalents.
1	Bones of every kind, raw, burnt, or ground	10 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* per cwt.
2	Leeches, together with the weight of the bags in which they are exported.	80 kopecks per pound.	2*s.* 10*d.* per pound.
3	Eggs of the silk-worm	2 roubles per pound.	7*s.* per pound.
4	Rags of every kind, shreds of wool, and paper pulp:		
	a. On the land frontier and at the port of Libau.	30 kopecks per pood.	2*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt.
	b. From ports in the Baltic (except Libau) and ports in the White Sea.	45 kopecks per pood.	4*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.
	c. From ports in the Black and Azof Seas.	20 kopecks per pood.	1*s.* 11½*d.* per cwt.
5	Calamine (or zinc ore), raw, calcined, and ground....	2½ kopecks per pood.	3½*d.* per cwt.
6	Iron ore. (Its exportation by the custom-houses of the Kingdom of Poland is prohibited.) Obs.—Iron ore may be exported through the custom-houses of the Kingdom of Poland from the mines nearest to the frontier and to foreign (not native) iron-works, particularly in places where there is a want of fuel, but only by special permission of the Ministry of Finance and on payment of a duty of 5 copecks per minebucket (a local measure).	Prohibited in Poland.	
7	All goods except those mentioned in the above list may be exported free of duty.		

LIST A.—*Foreign prepared medicines which may be imported and sold without restriction, by chemists, druggists, and shopkeepers generally* (§ 151).

1. Popp's tooth elixir.
2. Anodyne necklaces, Burchell's.
3. Le Ruby's gelatine capsules for administering medicines.
4. Cayenne lozenges.
5. Camomile drops.
6. Coltsfoot lozenges.
7. Leperdriel's compresses.
8. Court-plaster.
9. D'Pierre's eau dentifrice.
10. Eau dentifrice of the Societé Hygiénique.
11. Evans' elixir dentifrice.
12. Pelletir's elixir odontalgique.
13. Essence of peppermint.
14. Edwards' crystallized lemon-juice.
15. Issue-plaster.
16. Oxley's essence of ginger.
17. Extract of baréges, for baths.
18. German corn-plaster.
19. Ginger lozenges.
20. Ginger seeds.
22. Glass's magnesia.
23. Hecken's chest-comfits.
24. Henry's calcined magnesia.
25. Cod-liver oil, in bottles.
26. Essence of rennet.
27. Moxon's aperient magnesia.
27. Magnesia lozenges.
28. D'Linck and D'Lafiund's extract of malt.
29. Hubé's extract of nutshells for dyeing hair.
30. Pelletier's odontine.
31. Papier Fayard and Papier Blayn.
32. Papier Wlinsky.
33. Paraguay Roux.
34. Paregoric lozenges.
35. Marsh-mallow paste.
36. Jujube paste.
37. Licorice paste.
38. Peppermint lozenges.
39. Pastilles de Biline.
40. Pastilles d'Ems.
41. Pastilles de Vichy.
42. Pâte de Nafé d'Arabie.
43. Pâte balsamique de Regeneld ainé.
44. Tooth-powder.
45. Belloc's powdered charcoal.
46. Rogé's purgative powder.
47. Langrenier's Racahout des Arabes.
48. Edwards' salt of lemon.
49. Seidlitz powders.
50. Soda powders.
51. Sirop de Nâté d'Arabie.
52. Di' Suin Boutemard's tooth-paste.

§ 151.—Duty, 10 roubles per pood = £4 18*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.

LIST B.—*Foreign prepared medicines which can only be imported for chemists and by doctors for hospitals.*

1. Apiine capsules.
2. Copaiva balsam capsules.
3. Copaiva balsam and cubeb capsules.
4. Copaiva capsules.
5. Castor-oil capsules.
6. Cod-liver-oil capsules.
7. Turpentine capsules.
8. Grimault & Co.'s Matico capsules.
9. Joseau's Copahine Mège.
10. Lalonye's cubebine balls.
11. Berat, Gélis & Couté's lactate of iron balls.
12. Colbert's essence of sarsaparilla.
13. Quevenné's iron.
14. Burin de Buisson's gazeol.
15. Harleem drops.
16. Grimault & Co.'s solution of matico for injection.
17. Ipecacuanha lozenges.
18. Kiesow's Augsburg Essence of Life.
19. Klepperbein's plaster for strengthening the stomach and nerves.
20. Milan blister.
21. Rigollot's sinapism papers.
22. Albespeyre's epispastic paper.
23. Aubergier's pectoral paste.
24. Pure and starched pepsine.
25. Castoreum globules.
26. Chloroform globules.
27. Digitalis globules.
28. Turpentine globules.
29. Valerian globules.
30. Asafœtida globules.
31. Ether globules.
32. Leras' soluble phosphate of iron, or pyrophosphate of iron and soda.
33. Vallet's pills of carbonate of iron.
34. Fournier's pills of the extract of Paulinia.
35. Blancard's pills of the iodide of iron.
36. Dr. Leder's scordium powder pills.
37. Dr. Leder's extract of scordium pills.
38. Grimault & Co.'s guarana powders.
39. Büchner's vesicating pomade.
40. Fournier's Paulinia powders.
41. Rommershausen's eye-essence.
42. Boiveau-Laffecteur's rob antisyphilitique.
43. Sirop d'Aubergier.
44. Grimault & Co.'s sirop de raifort iodé.
45. Stern's opodeldoc.
46. Sterry's poor man's plaster.
47. Albespeyre's vesicating plaster.

OBSERVATION.

In case of the importation of any new medicines, prepared or otherwise, and which, although known, are not specified in the above list, such medicines can only be admitted by permission of the Ministry of Finance and Medical Council of the Ministry of the Interior.

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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

23320

REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

CONSULAR DISTRICTS.

No. 26.—December, 1882.

PUBLISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1882.

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

DECEMBER, 1882.

SILK CULTURE IN THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS, ON THE MISTAKES OF AMERICAN SERICULTURISTS.

INTRODUCTORY.

In previous dispatches I have endeavored from time to time to convey such information as I could obtain concerning the art of raising silk-worms and of reeling silk, both because I have believed that these industries would, in the near future, become of great value in the United States, and because I have had reason to know that many persons throughout the country were experimenting upon the subject.

My object has been to be of service in indicating the direction in which success is most readily and assuredly to be reached. The numerous letters which have been received at this consulate from American silk growers, and the information in publications of various kinds which have reached me, show that much is being done, and that the introduction of sericulture in the United States, on a serious basis, is taking place as rapidly as could be expected.

In fact there appears to be in some parts of the country a desire to do too much in too short a time, and some evil results have already arisen from this haste.

I consider it my duty to submit, for the information of the Department, such of these results as have been brought to my notice, to the end that serious harm to the new industry may thus, to some extent at least, be avoided.

ERRORS IN AMERICAN SERICULTURE.

The mistakes in American sericulture which have thus far presented themselves upon French markets are two in number.

1. American sericulturists have written here to business houses in a way which has sometimes been calculated to give the impression that they were in a position to do more than the event has shown to be in their power to accomplish.

I am convinced that this error has arisen, in all the cases which have come to my knowledge, from the inexperience of the writers and not from intentional misrepresentation. It is, nevertheless, a mistake which

should be avoided as much as possible, as it tends greatly to prevent the establishment of friendly and commercial relations with houses of respectability and experience.

Such relations would prove of great value, and to waste the opportunity of acquiring them is to greatly increase the difficulties in the way of the development of the industry in our midst.

I would suggest that those who write to silk firms abroad would do much better to state what they have already done, no matter how little, and then to state separately their estimates of the future, than to appear as stating that at a future time they will be able to produce such and such results. Allowances will readily be made for delays and difficulties, but unexplained short-comings are sure to injure credit, discourage co-operation, and dry up the source of information which would otherwise be extremely valuable.

A case in point is that large quantities of cocoons have repeatedly been promised on consignment here at Lyons, or at Marseilles, and have not made their appearance. I am informed that this is in reality accounted for by the fact that American growers have used their cocoons very largely for seed, having found that the growth of the industry is sufficiently rapid to afford a market.

To the merchants here, however, nothing is apparent but the failure of promised shipments, and unpleasant impressions is the very natural result.

As a consequence, little interest is taken in answering letters from other inquirers, and the whole class of growers and experimenters in America suffer. This is unfortunate, as there exist among the merchants of Lyons very many firms composed of men possessed of an enlightened and liberal spirit, and of a knowledge which is the result of many generations of careful experience.

Such men would be invaluable co-operators in a movement in which they were thoroughly interested, and their help is especially important in a matter as full of detail as are all branches of the silk industry. I find myself able to respond but feebly to the very numerous demands made upon me in connection with this subject, and in spite of my best efforts cannot always at once afford all the information asked for.

I have, therefore, considered that the remarks above made would be of service if conveyed to American sericulturists as indicating to them a point worthy of notice, by paying attention to which they will the more readily obtain the information which they desire.

I am persuaded that only time and experience are required to correct the difficulties of which I have spoken, and mention them only in the hope of aiding to accelerate their disappearance.

AMERICAN COCOON BREEDING.

2. I have this season seen quite a number of samples of American cocoons, and have had them submitted for examination to some of the first experts in France. Their testimony is unanimously to the effect that in order to produce first-class cocoons, better seed must be used.

This is a matter upon which abundant and costly experience has been obtained here, and it is thoroughly understood. I am informed that there are a few breeders in the United States who have proper experience and whose stock is of high quality, and I am not aware that any of the samples which I have seen have been produced from eggs sold by them. I therefore wish to be understood as speaking only upon the basis of such samples as have come under my observation. These have

been sufficiently numerous to show that at any rate a large number of persons are raising cocoons from eggs of mixed and inferior breed.

There appears to be an idea current in the United States that silk-worm eggs, as long as they are not positively diseased, are fit for propagation and rearing. This idea was to a certain extent justified a few years ago, when healthy eggs, or those supposed to be healthy, were eagerly sought after to replace the infected breeds of Europe during the height of the "maladie," but at present only the best eggs should be used. There is a difference in the value of the product amounting sometimes to 50 per cent. or 60 per cent. And this difference of value is entirely a difference of profits, and it costs quite as much trouble and expense to raise poor worms as it does to raise good ones.

So far as I have been able to judge or learn the defects found in American cocoons, they are entirely due to the use of inferior seed.

There is no evidence that there is any other difficulty, and, in fact, individual cocoons, in nearly all the lots which I have seen, show that when sprung from good stock the worms grow properly in many sections of our country, and produce cocoons which leave nothing to be desired.

If, therefore, silk culture is to attain as rapid and sound a development as, in my opinion, it is capable of in the United States, attention must at once be paid to the production or procuring of better eggs than were used in the great majority of cases for the crop of 1882.

THE PRODUCTION OF SILK-WORM EGGS—HOW TO PRODUCE GOOD SEED.

Although it is exceedingly easy to produce silk-worm eggs if no attention be paid to quality, few things are more difficult than to fulfill all the conditions that are required in building up such first-class stock as modern experience has shown to be necessary for the successful prosecution of sericulture in countries where labor is as dear as it is even in France and Italy.

In order to obtain good seed the following are absolute requisites:

In the first place, the worms which are destined for reproduction must be of a good and pure breed.

Next, it is quite essential that they should be raised not all in one place, but in small lots, separated from each other by considerable distances. If this point is not attended to, deterioration and infectious diseases are almost sure to follow sooner or later.

It is the custom in France among the raisers of good seed to give each one of these little lots, usually the worms coming from not over an ounce of seed, into the care of different farmers, in order that the worms may be as widely distributed as possible.

During the growth of the worms they are constantly examined by an inspector whose whole time is devoted to this work, and who notes all the important points connected with their progress, step by step.

These notes furnish what is called the "history of the parents." When these worms have made their cocoons there is noted upon the same register for each of the lots the weight of the cocoons produced for each ounce of seed and the proportion of poor cocoons.

Taking this register as a guide, all those lots which have not given perfectly satisfactory results, or from which the cocoons are mixed, or show many cases of "doubles," are thrown aside.

Cocoons of varying shades and sizes and the occurrence of many "doubles" are considered as evidences of unsoundness of the worm.

Such of the worms as are to be used for reproduction are placed pair by pair in small cells, each cell entirely separated from the others, and as soon as the eggs have been deposited the bodies of the two moths are crushed in a mortar and examined microscopically.

If corpuscles are found, or any other evidence of disease presents itself, the eggs contained in the cell which had been occupied by these two moths are thrown away.

Only those eggs are sold which had been laid in cells occupied by moths found upon examination to be healthy.

These seeds, then, are guaranteed as to their excellence by the following facts: First, they are a good breed; second, the parents have shown a perfect growth and have produced a good weight and quality of cocoons; third, the healthiness of the reproducers is always demonstrated by the autopsy of their bodies.

It is only by these precautions that the breed of silk-worms has been preserved during the malady which has afflicted Europe, and by means of which the remarkable results, which have again revived this industry, have been attained.

Necessarily, eggs thus produced are dear because of the minute care and great labor required to carry on the process in the manner described, and unfortunately there are many speculators who, in order to be able to sell the seed at a low price, resort to a manner very different from that which experience has shown to be the only true and proper procedure. These persons simply buy "double" or imperfect cocoons, allow the moths to emerge, mate at haphazard, and thus produce eggs of which the cost is insignificant, and which are sold at all sorts of prices, ranging at from two to eight francs per ounce.

Unhappily no means are known by which bad seed can be distinguished from good, by any examination which can be made of them, and the purchaser is obliged to depend entirely upon the raiser.

There are in France and Italy many raisers who have become famous and whose marks and names have become well known as those of men who have carefully practiced the best methods such as I have set forth, and whose wares are to be depended upon.

I am, however, informed (and I am firmly convinced that this is a fact) that at present no reliance whatever is to be placed upon these marks, as many of the great "graineurs" (raisers), having made large fortunes and established their reputations, have become careless, and no longer can be depended upon. A deterioration of their product is already very marked in some cases, and they appear to be rapidly losing the good qualities which they a short time since possessed.

I have said above that speculators were in the habit of selling their eggs produced from insects coming from "doubles" and imperfect cocoons There is a lower depth than this.

The professional raisers have found that they could sell eggs coming from the cells occupied by insects which the microscopical examination had shown to be actually diseased. Many of them are unscrupulous enough to sell such eggs instead of destroying them, as was formerly done. The purchasers, are brokers, usually Italians, who pay about two francs per ounce. The eggs are then put upon the market and sold as being of the best quality, with results that may be easily imagined. In short, silk-worm eggs, as merchandise, constitute an article of commerce, the quality of which cannot be determined at the time of sale. The only protection of the purchaser, therefore, is to be found in the honor of the vender.

The best cocoons of the yellow breed are bred in France, whereas in

Italy they produce the best cocoons of the green Japanese variety. For some years back Italian raisers have very highly esteemed the yellow French cocoons, and the French "graineurs" export annually to Italy in the neighborhood of 200,000 ounces.

Eggs should be shipped not later than February, but December is by far the most favorable time. By means of the attention paid to the breed and breeding of the eggs, the sericulturists of France have not only succeeded in overcoming the diseases which at one time threatened to entirely ruin this industry in Europe, but have already very largely increased the yield of cocoons from each ounce of good seed used. This increase is so great that it may be said in round numbers that the cocoons produced from an ounce of good seed are worth twice as much as those coming from carelessly managed eggs, such as appear to have been largely used in the United States. While the disease continued in France it would have been very unwise to have imported eggs from here, and it can now only be done to advantage by purchasing of merchants who have an extended knowledge of the business and whose integrity is above any question.

Under these circumstances, I think that importation of French eggs would greatly increase the value of American cocoons, and in fact I am of the opinion that such importation is necessary, at least for a time, until the mixtures now used have disappeared and our people have learned to produce for themselves a first-class grade of eggs. I feel also that the necessity of avoiding speculators and dealers of doubtful character cannot be too strongly insisted upon nor too often reiterated.

BENJAMIN F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, October 30, 1882.

AMERICAN TRADE IN SCOTLAND.

REPORT (FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1882,) BY CONSUL WELLS, OF DUNDEE.

THE EXTENSION OF UNITED STATES COMMERCE

within this wide consular district has had my special attention during the past year. The principal means used by me to effect this end has been by replying courteously and fully to numerous letters received at this office from United States manufacturers and merchants engaged in many different branches of trade, including makers of edge tools, sewing machines, clocks and watches, engines and other machinery, wood-working machinery, agricultural implements, furniture, saddlery, musical instruments, fancy stationery, American novelties, celluloid goods, cotton goods, and also from dealers in lumber, grain, flax-seed oil and cake, cotton-seed oil and cake, produce of various kinds, fruit, &c. To these correspondents such facts and practical suggestions were given as were considered best adapted to aid them in their desire to promote business in this locality. These applicants for names and addresses of parties likely to be buyers of their goods not only got what they requested, but a careful report about the commercial standing of the firms recommended, obtained by me from personal private inquiry, and information as to the best means by which to forward goods here;

the freights for direct shipments from New York or Boston to Dundee, or if sent via Glasgow, Liverpool, or London, the railway rates from these ports to this town. Whatever knowledge was believed to be of service in facilitating the promotion of United States commerce with this part of the country was communicated. As this office is commodious and very centrally situated in Dundee, offers were also made to exhibit any samples of goods that might be forwarded here. This certainly would be a favorable opportunity to show off and advertise American specialities to the numerous United States exporters who visit this consulate to declare to their invoices. Others, as well, would be glad to call and get a sight of such articles as they were interested in to purchase. There is very considerable sale of United States manufactures and produce in Dundee, but it is really limited to what it might be if our manufacturers and merchants made an actual attempt to push business. Notwithstanding all the correspondence that has passed through this office with the view indicated, it has not had the stimulating effect on business it might have had. Why? Well, for this reason: Our traders have shown commendable zeal in the initiatory stage of trying to extend their business here by asking names, &c., but apparently they never follow up further by any real practical steps. When they get these names they do not seem to utilize them. I have made strict inquiries to ascertain the outcome of my labor, and regret it was much less than could reasonably be expected, as these anxious inquirers seem to have consigned the most of the letters they got to the waste-basket. Only a few of these parties entered into a half-hearted communication with the firms recommended. It is not encouraging to have one's best efforts thus coolly canceled and ignored. If our traders would only imitate in a small way the manner in which Dundee manufacturers and merchants prosecute and force their business, I am satisfied in a short time a very much larger quantity of United States goods would be disposed of in this populous center. The makers and dealers in jute goods here leave no stone unturned, so to speak, to open up new connections in the United States. Many of these firms have one of their partners a traveler or resident American agent, journeying all over the United States eagerly picking up an order or any important item of news regarding their trade. As an exemplification of the success of so astute a policy it may be mentioned that New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and San Francisco, a year or two ago, were almost the only ports to which goods were sent from here as sold or consigned; whereas now shipments are invoiced at this office *direct* to nearly every large city of commercial importance in the United States. By this system, houses in Chicago, Detroit, Cincinnati, Saint Louis, Portland, Me., Portland, Oreg., &c., save the commission and other charges that were paid to merchants or agents in the first-mentioned ports. Although these last-mentioned cities thus get jute and linen goods so much the cheaper, yet Dundee is also the gainer, as it is enabled thereby to compete more keenly with other ports where such a class of fabrics is manufactured as in this town. This speaks well for the enterprise of traders here, for it is undoubtedly principally due to their foresight and energy that this change, satisfactory (it is affirmed) alike to their customers and themselves, has been brought about. These manufacturers work further to gain and keep new markets. They are now alive to the necessity of making such goods, both in style, finish, and price, as will please different localities. For instance, one linen-manufacturing firm in this district keeps designers specially for United States patterns. A large dry-goods house in New York used to obtain the whole production of

two of the largest linen manufacturers near Dundee, and these makers were restricted from dealing with other firms in the United States. A year or two ago these manufacturers declined longer to continue this monopoly, preferring rather to widen their sphere of business, which they say they have found to be more profitable and independent. One of these firms have now a branch house in New York, and one of the partners spends six or seven months each year in the United States, soliciting orders all over, and he forwards samples of goods to his firm to copy from, which are best liked and adapted for various places.

Dundee firms also show a wise discretionary liberality in the way they carry on their trade. They make due inquiry about their customers, and if it is ascertained that they are honest and reliable they unhesitatingly give fair, and in many cases good credit, so as to develop business. There are houses here that have £15,000 to £20,000 running in open account with United States firms, and many having £1,000 to £5,000 on these terms. With what result? Well, I will report what a leading merchant stated in this office. He said he made much fewer bad debts in the United States than he had either in the home or especially the European continental trade. Indeed, he said, "I am quietly retiring from this continental trade because it is so risky." These facts are mentioned because many of our traders show an undue want of confidence in first-class firms of the best standing that have been recommended to them. One of these, a most respectable produce dealer here, whose firm has been established for many years—and satisfactorily reported on by me—was refused a direct trial order of £100 worth of cheese on the terms of cash after receipt of goods. The terms demanded were cash immediately on delivery of goods. The transaction fell through, the merchant falling back on Glasgow or Liverpool exporters as usual for the article. Is this not rather an arbitrarily cautious method of conducting business with a firm which stands high and has been carefully recommended by a consul? A judicious latitude in the way of credit to such firms might be allowed. While there have been many United States buyers of jute and linen goods that have called upon me, only one seller of United States produce has visited this consulate to make inquiries during the past year. If our traders are anxious to extend their business in this locality they might display a little of the assiduity I have referred to as characteristic of Dundee manufacturers and merchants. The outlet for United States goods in this populous market is great and increasing yearly; let the field therefore be cultivated. The best services of this office will, with pleasure, be always at the command of our traders, to co-operate with and assist them in introducing and permanently establishing the sale of their goods in this consular district.

AMERICAN TRADE JOURNALS.

United States commercial, scientific, and literary journals are regularly received and kept on file and view at this office; they are valuable in promoting the extension of American commerce, in diffusing commercial and scientific information by their numerous advertisements and general letter-press.

AMERICAN GRAIN.

American grain imported direct into Dundee during 1881 shows a great falling off when compared with that of the previous year. In

1880 fifteen vessels, fourteen sailing ships, and one steamer arrived at this port from the United States with full cargoes of grain, as against three vessels in 1881 with full cargoes. In 1880 the cargoes aggregated 54,098 quarters, but in 1881 the total importations amounted only to 34,326 quarters; showing a decrease for 1881 of 19,772 quarters.

IMPORTS OF AMERICAN GENERAL MERCHANDISE.

United States general merchandise imported direct into Dundee in 1881 was as follows:

Flour:		
Sacks		38,871
Barrels		176
Oilcake	bags..	7,729
Canned meats	cases..	5,590
Hams	boxes..	60
Beef	tierces..	175
Pork	barrels..	150
Apples	do....	32
Sewing machines	cases..	10
Butter	tubs..	125
Lard	tierces..	50
Cider	barrels..	30
Oilmeal	sacks..	990
Molasses	puncheons..	600
Rosin	barrels..	100
Hay	bales..	956

Of the immense quantity of United States produce consumed in Dundee, these figures show how little arrives in this town direct. Nearly all American goods that come into this consular district are imported through London, Liverpool, and especially Glasgow.

AMERICAN FRESH BEEF AND MUTTON.

The sale of this commodity was becoming very large in Dundee, but, unfortunately, the success of the trade has been somewhat retarded during the present year, owing to an entire want of supply during the summer months. Cattle were so expensive in the United States from April to August this year that it was found unprofitable to import the meat here.

The manager of the Dundee United States Beef Store wisely kept the establishment open, selling Scotch meat, till the middle of September last, when he again began to be furnished with large quantities of United States fresh beef and mutton of the most excellent quality, which are remarkably quickly disposed of. This meat is now, however, about 2 cents per pound higher in retail price than last year. Still this is from 6 to 8 cents per pound cheaper than home-fed beef.

CANNED MEAT

Is highly appreciated as an article of food by the working classes of Dundee. So popular is this meat, that no retail grocery store, however small or humble, is to be seen without this commodity being prominently exhibited in the window. The sale is enormous, and yearly increasing. It is a fact that the poor people here say they are grateful for American canned meat being introduced into this town, as it is so good and cheap—16 cents per pound for compressed, which is recognized to be almost equal to two pounds of fresh meat. Before this meat was salable here the laboring poor could only seldom afford to purchase a little substantial animal food, beef of all kinds being most exorbitant in price.

CANNED FISH.

Canned salmon and lobsters are retailed largely in Dundee and the sale annually increasing. Salmon is best liked, and sells very readily amongst all classes; price, retail, 14 cents per 1-pound tin.

CANNED FRUIT.

There is a good sale of this article here, and it is certainly cheap. The consumption of canned fruit, however, is not so large as might be expected, its merits for cooking purposes and table use not being yet fully appreciated in this country. Another drawback is that this fruit is not purchased much by the poorer classes of Dundee, who have not the means to spend on a luxury, however cheap and health-preserving.

AMERICAN APPLES.

Apples are most expensive in Dundee. You cannot get an eatable apple below 8 cents per pound, and for a good one you must pay 12 cents. I am at a loss to understand why our apples are thus so dear. Taking into account the quoted price in America, and adding freight, which is comparatively low, and incidental expenses, apples might be sold much cheaper and yet yield a fair profit. The prices above mentioned are the average ruling here every season, I am informed, and therefore not exceptional, because apples are somewhat scarce in the United States this year. Notwithstanding these prices, the sale of our apples is very large, as they are favorites and esteemed the best kind that can be purchased. If the prices were more within the reach of the poor classes the consumption would be very great.

AMERICAN PROVISIONS.

American hams, pork, cheese, and butter are largely sold in every grocery store in Dundee. One large store, which does an immense business, is devoted solely to the sale of these commodities. These hams and the pork are all represented as "prime Irish," a most unscrupulous description, as it is well known that this *Hibernian* firm import these hams and pork in salt into Glasgow, where the curing is done at their large establishment for that purpose in that city. The articles sold in said store are of good quality although cheap, varying in prices for hams from 14 to 24 cents per pound; hence it is patronized by all classes of this populous community; the lady with carriage, and waited on by footman, may be seen alongside of the laborer's wife making purchases. Cheese is acknowledged to be American, but the butter is not, of course; it is "best Irish" or "Danish." These articles are not, however, sold in nearly so large quantity in proportion as the hams and pork, which are very popular.

Although a large section of the population of this town is miserably poor, yet scarcely any oleomargarine is sold in Dundee.

AMERICAN FURNITURE.

American-made furniture is now largely used in hotels, saloons, billiard rooms, and smoking rooms of private houses here, because it is so comfortable and easily kept clean. This furniture does not come direct from the United States to the hands of dealers in Dundee, but through

wholesale houses or agents in Glasgow or London. By this system of intermediate agents the price of the article is considerably enhanced to dealers and purchasers here.

CARPENTER WORK.

I am informed that no American manufactured wood-work has reached Dundee during the past year. The low wages paid to house carpenters here for some years back seems to have had the effect of stopping import of this class of work.

AMERICAN ORGANS.

American organs have an enormous sale in Dundee; everybody with the slightest musical taste, that can manage to scrape together a little money, buys one of these splendid and sweet-toned instruments; indeed, by reason of their beautifully artistic design, they are very popular as articles of furniture. They are almost entirely superseding harmoniums in the churches, schools, and homes of this district.

AMERICAN CLOCKS AND WATCHES.

American clocks and watches of the cheaper kind have an immense sale in Dundee. A wealthy watchmaker here said to me he regretted it was only the lowest priced United States timekeepers that sold well here; because, although they were really wonderful value at the price, they could scarcely be expected to give the satisfaction of a little higher priced article. He believed this state of circumstances acted somewhat prejudicial to this branch of United States trade in Dundee. Waltham watches are much in favor in Dundee, and largely bought by the workingmen through the club system, which is that a number of men pay so much per week, and at intervals a watch is drawn for, so that a man may enjoy the privilege of carrying a watch a long time before he has actually paid for it.

UNITED STATES INVESTMENT COMPANIES IN DUNDEE.

These continue to be conducted with marked ability and are still improving in position and yielding handsome profits to the shareholders. The first Scottish-American Trust Company of Dundee has this year paid 8 per cent. dividend and added £2,000 to its reserve fund, which now stands at about £40,000. The capital is £300,000, and assets are valued at more than £160,000, equal to upwards of £153 per fully paid up share of £100. The second company has a revenue which would return 9$\frac{1}{10}$ per cent.; 8$\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. is what has been paid, and £3,000 added to its reserve fund, bringing it up to £47,000. The capital is £400,000, and the assets are valued at £622,841, equal to £155 14*s.* 2*d.*, per fully paid up share of £100. The third company has paid 7$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and added £3,000 to its reserve fund, making it £37,000. The capital is £400,000 and the assets are valued at £584,007, or equal to £146 per £100 share paid up. The Dundee Mortgage and Trust Investment Company, limited, has paid 10 per cent. and added £16,000 to its reserve fund, which now is £66,000. The Oregon and Washington Savings Bank, limited, has been also a remunerative company to its shareholders. The accounts show a net gain of 20 per cent. This bank is to be amalgamated with the Dundee Mortgage and Trust Investment

Company, limited. The Oregonian Railway Company, having its head office in Dundee, has been a successfully managed concern and yields good returns to the shareholders. The Dundee Land Investment Company, limited, capital £500,000, and the Texas Land and Cattle Company, limited, capital £630,000, have been started in Dundee and got in working order this year. These facts and figures prove that the United States stand in high favor as a field for the investment of Dundee capital, and also that careful attention has been paid by the different boards of directors to keep the funds of these companies well, yet safely, employed. This has necessitated constant watchfulness and penetration, seeing that the tendency for some years past has been towards a gradual decline in the rates of interest in the United States. It has been good policy of these companies to form large reserve funds, as the directors are now enabled by virtue of this extra security to borrow money on debenture bonds at from 4¼ to 4½ per cent. compared with 5 to 6 per cent. a year or two ago, this making an important saving. Dundee is to be congratulated in having sharp, business, wealthy gentlemen residents, who are willing to devote their abilities and valuable experience to the management of these companies.

WILLARD B. WELLS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dundee, October 10, 1882.

AMERICAN vs. EUROPEAN TRADE IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

REPORT BY ACTING CONSUL KLINCK.

IMPORTS.

The remarks in my last report still apply to this branch of the commerce of these islands, and, with the exception of petroleum, flour, some machinery, and a little furniture, few American-made goods have been introduced; cheap and worthless German imitations suit better the ideas of dealers. American drillings, superior to any of English make, have been imported, and are much approved of by the few who have purchased, but the price prevents natives buying in large quantity. However, with the wealth which will naturally follow on recent large crops of many articles of produce, aided by the money about to be brought by the growers of tobacco under the new regulations, the natives will be better able to purchase, and will, doubtless, see the advantage of getting a better article for their money.

Furniture, in fancy chairs, tables, &c., is much liked, and there is a great field in this department for importation from the United States. The consumption of Californian flour is increasing daily; but the trade in this is in the hands of the Chinese, who import it from Hong-Kong. American tinned goods of all kinds are much liked, and are, perhaps, not sufficiently pushed here. The San Francisco fruits are the best on the market. Sugar-cured hams, cheese, butter, and smoked salmon are much sought for, but consumption is only moderate. Light German beer is enormously used now, and has almost quite driven out the English brands; our American lager beer, if placed here in good condition and at moderate price, would doubtless be liked; the Germans ship in cases of eight dozen nominal pints. Clocks are much liked,

but inferior imitations from Germany as yet are preferred, owing to difference in price.

In machinery the only articles of American manufacture as yet in general use are the weighing scales of Messrs. Fairbanks, and light plows. These last are being imitated by the English firm of Ransomes, Sims & Heard, and find a ready sale in the province of Yloilo. The sugar machinery hitherto imported has been chiefly of English manufacture. In the island of Negros a steam plow of English make has been set up on one of the sugar plantations, under the supervision of an engineer specially sent out by the makers. I must mention that the machinery of Messrs. Geo. L. Squier & Bros. is gradually making a reputation for itself in some provinces of these islands, and is much liked. Ere long it is likely that we shall see a large importation of their rice and coffee cleaning machines, as well as cane-crushing mills.

An attempt has been made to introduce American buck-board wagons, but it is yet too early to predict if it will be a success. There is a very large native carriage-building industry, and possibly the best field for our manufacturers may be to confine themselves to the supply of materials; however, time will show whether the complete article meets with acceptance. While on the subject of carriages I may mention that the importation of candles (in packets of six) for carriage use is very great, and chiefly from Belgian factories. They are in cases of 25 pounds nominal, each packet of a so-called pound weighing only about 12 to 13 ounces.

Carriage and riding whips have also an enormous sale, but imported articles must be cheap, as natives make for their own use. Still the field is wide, as in Manila and near villages the number of vehicles amount to many thousands.

About twenty-five new steam sugar mills have been erected during the year in the various departments of the archipelago, and there will, in all probability, be an increasing demand for them, as the result of recent good crops has been to put the finances of the planters on a better footing, and most of those who were formerly largely indebted to merchants and speculators have now got rid of their obligations.

SHIPPING.

During the year some half dozen new steamers have been added to the number of those engaged in the coasting trade, and postal communication is gradually being opened up with places hitherto neglected. The result of this is that the trade in some of the minor articles is being largely developed, and some new articles are being brought for sale, such as imitation ebony, from the most southerly islands of the group. About 400 tons arrived by one steamer.

The trade with Sooloo has proved a failure, so far as Manila is concerned. The port having been made free from all custom-house restrictions, most of the imports arrive from Singapore; and many of the exports, shells, &c., go to the same port instead of coming to Manila, as formerly. A steamer put on the line from Manila to Sooloo has been withdrawn for want of encouragement, but another will shortly be put on to give the trade a fresh trial in a more energetic manner. The establishment in the neighborhood of a powerful association, called the North Borneo Company, with a charter from the British Government, will considerably affect trade in the Sooloo region, as the natives complain much of the many difficulties placed in their way by the Spaniards, and will doubtless prefer to carry their produce to the new settlement

at Sandakan. The Spanish Government has very strongly opposed the endeavors of the new company to obtain a charter, but the British Government has decided that Spain has no real claim to the north of Borneo, but only a nominal cession from petty native chiefs, who themselves have no real right over the ports in question. The place fixed upon has hitherto been abandoned to pirates, which the new company will be obliged to clear out, and thus ultimately be of great benefit to the Spanish settlements in Sooloo, which are also subject to their attacks.

The fleet of steamers belonging to the Marques de Campo, trading between this and Spain, with a government subsidy for the mails, has been largely increased, and the Olano line of steamers, on the same route, is about to be re-enforced by the addition of several powerful vessels. Both of these lines after calling at the Spanish ports proceed to Liverpool, and on the return voyage the cargo is in great measure made up of English piece goods and machinery, German hardware, and American goods.

During this year several steamers have come out from Antwerp with general cargoes chiefly consisting of German and Belgian hardware, wines, gin, and beer. The consumption of Dutch gin is getting to be enormous.

Communication with Hong-Kong has also been increased, and, besides the line of steamers referred to in my last report, three other steamers make regular voyages between this port and Hong-Kong and Amoy.

EXPORTS.

The United States are among the largest consumers of Philippine produce, the principal articles being sugar and hemp.

Hemp.—The cultivation of this product has been greatly stimulated by the very high prices ruling during this year, the rise being caused by increased demand consequent on new purposes to which the fiber has been applied, chiefly for binding sheaves in reaping machines, instead of wire, as formerly used. As no substitute for Manila hemp seems to be obtainable elsewhere, notwithstanding great efforts made to naturalize it in British India and other places, it seems likely that the demand will continue to increase, and although supplies will doubtless come forward freely on account of its ready sale, it is likely the price will be sustained.

Sugar.—Nothing worthy of remark has happened as regards this article. A refinery established here continues to turn out good sugar, and another establishment on a similar principle is about to be opened. The growth of the sugar industry in the province of Iloilo, or rather the export from the port of Iloilo, which embraces also all the fine estates of the neighboring island of Negros, is attracting much attention, and is fast becoming a rival to Manila. There are those who think that, in time, it will become the chief commercial center of the Philippines. The province Iloilo is very densely populated, and the natives are industrious and enterprising. The soil is also well suited to the cultivation of tobacco.

Coffee.—Many new plantations have been made during this year, but the frequent heavy gales, more severe this year than usual, have destroyed many of the young plants, so that much augmentation of export will not take place for two or three years yet. The quality is improving, as growers find it more for their interest to bring clean beans to market. Prices are not encouraging to planters, owing to the very

abundant crop in Brazil, and it is many years since the quotation has been so low as at the present moment.

Indigo.—The crop has been only a medium one, and prices have been low. The bulk of it has been employed by local dyers, who paid better prices than those offered. The natives still continue to make the dye without the aid of any modern machines, and, consequently, the quality does not improve.

Hides.—The demand during the year has been chiefly local and for export to China and Singapore. The consumption here is getting to be so great that it is not likely that a large export will ever be reported. The small quantities sent to Europe and America have been chiefly in the form of cuttings for making glue. Rates both for whole hides and for cuttings have been extremely high during this year. The number of hides obtainable would greatly increase and price be more moderate were the government to allow merchants to purchase direct from the original owners. But the right of buying them is farmed out, so that all purchases have to be made from the government contractor, and consequently at a high rate, as he has not only to cover the sum paid for his monopoly, but to secure a profit. There is a contractor for each province, and he often offers a price so low that the natives prefer to throw away their hides rather than bring them such a distance for so little. Those arriving in Manila generally come to Chinese who have bought in the province from the contractors.

Hats.—The export during the past year was unprecedentedly large, and mostly went to the United States from one firm. The manufacturers are greatly encouraged by the ready sale of their hats, and look for a continuance of the demand.

Mother-of-pearl shells.—During the trouble experienced by the natives of Sooloo in approaching the settlement, and the suspicion with which they are looked upon as possible pirates, they do not cultivate the shell-fishery so much as formerly, and for that reason the supply here has been very short this year. Another reason for the scarcity is that many of the shells collected at Sooloo are shipped to Singapore from that port in one of the steamers trading between the two ports. The small supply here is the more to be regretted, as the demand has this year been remarkably good, both for Europe and America, and prices high. The quality of the shell brought to this market is deteriorating, owing to the fishers confining their operations to the old beds; but there is doubtless a very large and untouched field for them in other parts, which will ere long be tried. A French captain has gone to the south with a steam launch and proper tackle and appliances to devote himself to this business.

Maguey.—A fiber somewhat similar in appearance to hemp, but without any of its strength, found in various parts of the islands, chiefly in the province of Ylocas, in the north of Luzon Island, has lately come down more freely than formerly, owing to a better demand having set in last year. Most of the export has gone to England, and has not given satisfaction, much of it being now stored in London, and quite unsalable. The fiber is very carelessly cleaned by the natives, notwithstanding repeated warnings given to them by purchasers, and consequently now, when it is not in demand, much of what arrives from Ylocas is being returned in the same vessels in which it came, to be cleaned, which will give such trouble to the natives that they will probably abandon the cultivation of it, for a time at least.

Cigars and tobacco.—These have been sold hitherto by public auction, but at the end of 1882 this will cease with the monopoly, the decree

regarding which I forwarded with my last report. Great expectations have been formed with regard to the future of the leaf-tobacco business, and capital for growing purposes will come freely forward from speculators of all nationalities, chiefly Spaniards and Belgians. The Belgian Government, in view of the probable increase of their interests in these islands, have appointed a consul-general for the Philippines, though in this city at the present moment there are only five individuals of that nationality. The German Government has also recently sent out, for the first time, a diplomatic consul.

With regard to these tobacco speculations, whatever may be the result to those engaged in them, it is certain that good will result to the islands in general, from the capital interested in plantations and works. But the foreigners who come here will find in the apathy of the natives and of the government, obstacles which all their capital and intelligence will be unable to overcome, and their success will probably, at the best, be slow.

The Spanish Government is at present undecided as to the method of making up the revenue formerly supplied by the tobacco monopoly, and various plans have been proposed, some of them rather startling, such as a proposal by one of the chief newspapers to put an export duty of $1 per picul on hemp. In any case there will be a considerable export duty both on cigars and on leaf tobacco. The quality of both, especially the latter, will certainly improve, as growers and makers will be paid according to quality, and thus have a motive to give good value. Price of cigars will probably advance for first-class quality, while inferior kinds will be sold at lower rates than the present ones.

The managing staff of one gigantic tobacco company has already arrived, and a portion of their capital (amounting to a few hundred thousands of dollars) is also here. Their resources are said to reach $15,000,000, and on the list of directors several powerful names figure, including several French capitalists, such as the Duc Decazes. The manager expresses himself as disappointed that more natives and others do not flock round him for advances to enable them to extend cultivation, and it is to be feared that the large capital referred to will not find very profitable investment for many years. Another Spanish company managed by a person well acquainted with the country and all the difficulties in the way is buying up land in a prudent way, and will probably sell it at a large advance, should they not work it themselves. The capital of this company is understood to be considerable, say $2,000,000 or $3,000,000. A society of Chinese is also investing $5,000,000 in the tobacco business, and several industrials of various nationalities have looked out sites and got together sufficient capital to manufacture cigars. Samples of packages, labels, &c. are already arriving in large number, and in a few months it will be seen what projects are ready to be carried out.

Gum copal.—During this year extreme prices have been paid for this article of export, and a large proportion of it has gone to the United States. Under the influence of these prices, large quantities have come forward As it is found in the earth, being the deposit for ages past of the forest trees, the supply is almost without limit, and the large quantity lately received is now beginning to lower prices, so that at the present moment it is not far from normal rate.

Taxes.—As one of the methods to make up the loss of revenue consequent on the freeing of tobacco-growing and export, it is proposed to tax all commercial companies to the extent of 5 per cent. on net profits. The decree for this has gone forth, but has been appealed against by

many merchants, with what result remains to be seen. At present the only tax levied on traders is one of $400 for each firm.

The new port-tax imposed with the avowed object of collecting money towards the building of great harbor and breakwater works is duly levied still. The plans have been made, and various engineers appointed, but for the millions of dollars levied for the purpose all that can be seen is the foundation of a store for building materials, a cane-house for the collector, and a few bamboo-stakes to mark off the boundary of the first few yards of works, which is said to have cost over $100,000.

NAVIGATION, 1880.

The amount of British sailing tonnage entered and cleared was 20,689; of American, 55,085. Spanish sailing vessels engaged in foreign trade amounted to only 523 tons, but the Spanish steam tonnage amounted to 49,182 tons, which is composed principally of two lines of large steamers between this and Liverpool via Suez Canal, and touching in Spain; one of these lines is sustained by government contract.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Minerals.—None of the coal-mines discovered in the islands at various periods have resulted in any great success, and there does not appear to be any great future for this trade, though the prices paid for imported coal, Cardiff and Australian, have been very encouraging to native miners. The same may be said of copper, which has been in remarkably good demand for China this year, notwithstanding which the mines at Mancayan, in the north of this island, which are worked by a public company, have put out less metal than usual, owing to the action of the government in taking away many of the workmen to assist in an expedition made against the still unsubdued savages of the interior. A gold mine is being worked in the province of Albay by an enterprising Spaniard, with good machinery, but with very poor result as yet.

Population.—The population of the Philippine Islands in 1876 was 6,173,632, and in 1878 it was 6,187,063, an increase in two years of 14,451.

Forests.—The forest productions of these islands are of immense area, great in variety and value.

CHARLES KLINCK,
Acting Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Manila, August 31, 1882.

NEW YORK TO RIO DE JANEIRO.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL ANDREWS, OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

Competent ship-masters will, I think, bear me out in the statement that the voyage between the United States and Brazil is easy and pleasant as compared with that across the Atlantic.

In coming from New York to this port and returning the weather and sea as a rule are favorable; a fact important both to merchants and to those who travel for recreation and instruction.

A sailing vessel leaving one of our Atlantic ports and bound for

Brazil, usually steers east a great distance in order to get into the trade-winds blowing from the northeast to the southwest. She goes east for this purpose nearly half way across the Atlantic, then turns and goes southeasterly to about the twenty-eighth degree of latitude; from there she is carried along by the northeast trade-wind to the tenth or fifth degree of latitude north of the equator, according to the season, after which there are light variable winds till about the second degree north of the equator, when the southeast trade-winds may be expected, and which take the vessel to about the nineteenth degree of latitude south of the equator; after which there are variable winds to Rio de Janeiro. The average crossing of the equator is at longitude 32° west.

The best trade-winds are experienced in our northern winters, and our winter season is also considered the best for vessels leaving for Brazil on account of the strong westerly gales which then prevail. Previous to the issue of Maury's chart and sailing directions vessels bound for Brazil used to go out as far east as the Western Islands before turning south.

On the homeward voyage from Rio the sailing vessel tries to follow the coast, but as a rule has to go off in a southeasterly direction sometimes a distance of 500 miles before getting a chance to go north. The southeast trade-wind is generally obtained in the latitude of Pernambuco, 8° south of the equator, which takes the vessel northwesterly so as to cross the equator at about the fortieth degree of longitude, say about opposite the mouth of the Amazon. It then continues northwesterly, clearing the West India Islands, steering for Cape Hatteras and striking the Gulf Stream in latitude 34° north and longitude 73½°, which would be 130 miles southeast of Cape Hatteras. The crossing of the Gulf Stream is generally attended with boisterous weather and accomplished as quickly as possible. The Gulf Stream runs only about 25 miles off Cape Hatteras and is there only 80 miles wide. The difficulties of navigation in that vicinity have given rise to the seaman's rhyme—

> If the Bermudas let you pass,
> Look out for Cape Hatteras.

Gales are seldom met with south of the Gulf Stream, but are experienced north of it in the winter months. Thus a vessel may sometimes be twelve days going from Cape Hatteras to the Chesapeake Bay—111 miles—which in favorable weather it will run in twelve hours. So, also, in respect to steamships, with the exception of occasional rough weather crossing the Gulf Stream in winter, and head winds and current between Pará and Pernambuco coming to this port, the sea is smooth and the voyage very pleasant both ways. The course of a steamer from New York to this port would be southeasterly, yet following a slight curve. She would scarcely strike the fiftieth degree of longitude till off the coast of Brazil. Her homeward passage would lie nearer the West Indies than the outward.

As the "torrid zone" extends some 23° on each side of the equator, and as the common understanding of the word "torrid" is violent heat, it is no wonder that people have got an exceedingly wrong impression as to the character of the weather at sea in the neighborhood and even under the equator. It is not oppressively hot. On the contrary, there is generally a fine breeze, and the nights are often cool enough for passengers to require a blanket for cover in their berths while sleeping.

I believe there is nothing particularly noteworthy as to the phenomena in the vicinity of the equator, and through the "torrid" zone, except

that the weather may towards evening be habitually cloudy and look threatening and soon clear and become bright starlight. As is probably well known, the water when agitated displays at night much brilliant phosphorous light. During the day the sight of one or two sailing vessels at a distance, also the frequently seeing "flying fish" are about all that would interrupt the monotony.

Coming south from the equator, say in August, one soon misses the "Great Dipper." The Southern Cross, a constellation of but four stars, is then seen in the southwestern heavens early in the evening. The Scorpion is then directly overhead, and at two or three o'clock in the morning Orion is visible just above the eastern horizon.

The distance from New York to Rio de Janeiro direct is 5,000 miles; consequently steam ships that average 12 miles an hour, a reasonable speed, would make the voyage in seventeen days.

There are no steamers now running between these ports making so quick time, those now in use being chartered foreign steamers doing a freight business almost exclusively. Calling, as they do, at the Brazilian ports of Para, Maranham, Pernambuco, and Bahia to discharge cargo, at each of which places they are generally detained two days, also sometimes stopping at St. Thomas for coal, their voyage hither occupies from thirty to forty-five days. Owing to this slow communication much of the mail matter from the United States to Brazil comes by the way of Europe.

To those who have not closely considered the subject it will seem very strange that while there are lines of steamers regularly running to and from Brazil under the British, German, French, Belgian, and other foreign flags, there is not a single line nor a single steamer trading to Brazil under the flag of the United States. There are several reasons for this singular state of things: First, the countries above named, with the exception of Germany, have granted liberal aid to their steamship lines, which our country has not done. Secondly, steamships are built and run cheaper by Europeans than Americans. The principle of permanence is characteristic in all branches of their steamship service, and they are content, and probably better able to be content, with smaller profits than are the Americans. Thirdly, more goods are exported to Brazil from each of the European countries named than from the United States. Even Belgium exports more goods to Brazil than do the United States.

The market for European goods in Brazil has not only been increased by the quality of cheapness, but by the presence in Brazil of colonies of European merchants naturally inclined to import from their respective home countries. The crowded condition of England, Germany, Belgium, and other countries that might be mentioned induce many of their educated and talented young business men to emigrate to all parts of the globe. They are numerously represented here and they are effective in developing commerce with their home countries. It is different in respect to Americans. They seldom emigrate. They have a wide field at home. The young business men of the United States prefer to try their chances in the new trade centers which spring up so frequently in their own country rather than to exile themselves to foreign lands, where they must learn another language and accustom themselves to new ways of living. It is owing to this, probably, that the number of American merchants here is exceedingly small as compared with those who are natives of England, Germany, and several other European countries. But it may be asked, perhaps, "Was there not a line of excellent American steamers (the Roach line) running between the

United States and Brazil only a few years ago?" It is true there was. The early success of that line was owing to the unusual circumstance that in the years 1877 and 1878 manufactured goods were cheaper in the United States than anywhere else, thus causing large exports, even to Brazil. The decline of that export trade and the drawing off of these fine steamers from this route were owing mainly to the rapid rise in the price of goods in our own country caused by the "boom." The increased prosperity at home afforded a better market for our goods at home than abroad. Also, it should be mentioned that, about the same time that our exports to Brazil declined, the Brazilian Government discontinued payment of the subsidy to the steamers, which it had formerly paid.

Undoubtedly there is now a fair opening here for American manufactures, but it requires the presence here of competent parties to study and foster the trade. The main help now needed to develop and maintain mutual commerce with Brazil is a regular and permanent line of steamers. Such a line to be successful must have the qualities of regularity and permanence, and, in view of all the circumstances, and especially of the fact that so many other countries are now ahead of us in steamship communication with Brazil, it would seem to be sound policy for our government to undertake not the payment of an extravagant subsidy, but to make such liberal payment for mail service for a long term of years to a suitable line of American steamers as will tend in due time to secure the establishment of such a line on a good business basis.

C. C. ANDREWS,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Rio de Janeiro, October 21, 1882.

FRUIT TRADE OF BRITISH HONDURAS WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT OF CONSUL MORLAN, OF BELIZE.

STEAM COMMUNICATION.

I have to report a change in the mail service between this port and New Orleans, commencing September 9.

The colony now has a mail steamer from New Orleans every ninth and twelfth day instead of every two weeks as formerly. These steamers are subsidized by the colonial government for carrying the British mails to the amount of $25,000 per annum. At present the line consists of two steamers, the City of Dallas, of 955 tons, and the Wanderer, of 531 tons. Both vessels carry the American flag, and are owned and operated by Messrs. Macheca Bros., commission merchants and dealers in foreign fruits and nuts, at New Orleans.

In addition to Belize, the steamers touch at Livingston (Guatemala), and Puerto Cortez and Utilla, in Honduras, making Belize their port of arrival and departure from and to the United States.

The Philadelphia line of steamers (Messrs. Warren & Merritt) have discontinued their trips to this port for the present, as there is not enough fruit grown to make it an object for them to call, and the trade between this port and Philadelphia did not offer much in the way of freight. It

is expected, however, that when the fruit trade is properly developed they will resume their trips.

The New York line (Messrs. Wm. Jex & Co.) have been very unfortunate in their trade with this colony and Central America. First, by the loss of the steamship Pallas, wrecked on her first trip to Corn Island, and now by the wreck of the Mallard, on her fourth trip at Chinchona Banks, about fifty miles from this port. It is thought that another steamer will be immediately placed on the line, as the traffic between New York and this port will warrant it. The Mallard was the pioneer in shipping fruit from this part of the world to New York, and her loss will prove a damper for a time on the business of growing fruit in this colony, as it removes the competition that existed between the rival lines.

In addition to the steamships above mentioned, additional facilities for getting fruit to market will be furnished by means of steam communication up and down the coast and principal rivers of the colony to connect with the regular mail steamer from the United States. The colonial government invites tenders for placing a light-draught steamer of about 150 tons burden on the route above mentioned, the steamer to make at least two trips per month for mail and passenger traffic, and promises a subsidy of $5,000 per annum. This will be of great benefit to the inhabitants of the northern part of the colony, as the water is too shallow to admit of being visited by large ships, and they have thus been deprived of the advantage of shipping their produce direct. They will now be enabled to engage in fruit-growing, as well as have the means of getting their produce (sugar, rice, logwood, &c.) quickly and safely to market.

For the frequent and regular communication by steamship with the United States, and the consequent encouragement of fruit-growing, the colony is indebted to His Excellency Lieut. Gov. F. P. Barlee, who did all in his power for the advancement of the colony, and who recognized the fact that its best interests were to be promoted by establishing closer commercial relations with the United States.

FRUIT EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

At the present time most of the fruit shipped to the United States by the Macheca Brothers is grown in the neighboring republics of Honduras and Guatemala, as fruit-growing in this colony is in its infancy and the shipments at the present time are small. They are, however, increasing rapidly in size and value, as several companies, as well as private individuals, have lately engaged in growing fruit for export, and are making a great success of it. In time there is no doubt that ships will be able to get entire loads of fruit in this colony, and thus avoid the expense and time lost in going to the Spanish main to get sufficient fruit to make up a cargo. This trade is very much needed in this colony, as the balance of trade with the United States is against it, and a large and continuous exportation of tropical fruits cannot fail to have a beneficial effect in reducing the value of exchange and favoring the introduction of more American goods.

The United States supplies all this part of the world with provisions, and could the fruit trade be properly built up and established, would undoubtedly supply all the most important manufactured articles.

FRUIT-GROWING IN HONDURAS.

The greater part of the fruits shipped to the United States at the present time are bananas and plantains. The banana is a very perishable

fruit, and to reach the market in a proper condition must be pulled when quite green (three-fourths full is the term used here), as if it is allowed to ripen on the stalk, or sucker, as it is called here, they would all spoil before the ship could make the passage. It is this fact that has prevented the growing of fruit in the colony for export; the speedy and regular trips of the steamer will change all this. The plantain is a fruit resembling the banana in appearance, but much hardier and only suitable for cooking. It is shipped in considerable quantities, but the demand for them is limited to the Southern States, as comparatively few people in the North know the use of them. Here, as in all Central America, they might almost be called the bread of the country, as they are in constant use, and form a large item in food of the people. They are cooked in a variety of ways, broiled, baked, fried, and stewed, and are very nutritious. The prisoners in the jail are fed almost entirely on them, with the addition of a little salt fish, and occasionally meat soup and pilot bread, and, although they perform hard labor, actually gain flesh during their confinement. Planting of bananas and plantains is done in a very primitive manner, and consists in cutting off the bush and trees during the dry season and burning the brush; then, at the beginning of the rainy season, the suckers are planted by making a hole in the ground with a hoe or machete. After that nothing is required except to keep down the weeds and brush until the fruit is ready for the market. Each stalk produces but one bunch of fruit, and requires about nine months from time of planting to produce fruit suitable for market. The stalks are cut down to get the fruit, and fresh suckers shoot up to supply other bunches. After a certain number of years (depending on the depth and quality of the soil) the ground becomes exhausted and will not produce large bunches, and other clearings are made and new plantations, or walks, as they are commonly called, are established.

Planters who properly understand the rotation of crops place cocoanut and other long-lived trees between the rows of banana and plantain suckers, and thus, by the time the bananas and plantains have given out, the hardier plants have commenced to bear and bring a more certain and lasting revenue.

The growing of pineapples, yams, and cocoa (a vegetable resembling the potato) is conducted in very much the same manner as bananas and plantains.

A great aid to the growing and shipping of perishable fruits to the United States would be the establishment of a line of telegraph along the coast, as the fruit-growers could then be informed not only of the exact time that the steamer would call for the fruit but also of the amount of fruit needed, and avoid the loss occasioned sometimes by cutting it in too great quantities.

The worst drawback the fruit-growers have to contend with at the present time is the lack of suitable labor, most of the laborers of the colony being employed in the mahogany and log-wood works or sugar estates. However, should prices of fruits advance as competition increases, the demand might be met by importing coolie labor from Jamaica, as is done for some of the sugar estates.

Previous to the subsidizing of the line of steamers there was no market for fruit in this colony, and no persons were engaged in it except Caribs, who grew what fruit was needed for the local market.

In addition to the before-mentioned fruits there are shipped in their seasons considerable quantities of pineapples, oranges, limes, and a few alligator pears; the last named have to be shipped on ice, and command high prices in the New Orleans market.

There are a great many other varieties of fruits grown here that are too perishable to ship, and a taste for them would have to be created before it would pay to ship them on ice, as would have to be done to insure their safe arrival. The prices paid for the fruits by the buyers are much lower than they should be to properly encourage the planters, and are as follows: Bananas, 37½ to 75 cents per bunch; plantains and pineapples, 50 to 75 cents per hundred; mangoes, $3 per barrel. Brisk competition might have the effect that it has had on the price of cocoanuts, the price for them formerly being $10 to $13 per thousand, while they now bring from $20 to $30. Even at the prices named, fruit-growing seems to be profitable, as lands are very cheap. Government lands sell at $1 per acre, and large lots by private parties are even less in price.

I have no means of giving the exact amount of capital engaged in fruit-growing, nor the amount exported to the United States, but I will endeavor to learn and report at some future date, when I anticipate a large increase over the present and a trade that will give employment to a large number of ships and considerably increase the export trade of the United States to this colony.

ALBERT E. MORLAN.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Belize, October, 1, 1882.

AMERICAN TRADE IN SOUTHERN BRAZIL.

REPORT BY CONSULAR AGENT COMSETT, OF DESTERRO.

In my report of April last I gave some of my ideas as to what I believed was necessary in order to increase our trade in this part of Brazil. I am convinced of my views, that direct communication is to our export trade what railroads have been to the opening up of our western lands; and until such is accomplished, we may write, make speeches, guess, and calculate to our hearts' content, for as long as Europe enjoys this auxiliary in its favor, our labors cannot be other than up-hill work. I feel sure, in my own mind, that direct, quick, and cheap transportation must not only be first secured, but that it must be under the Stars and Stripes, represented at each port by thorough Americans of the true snap; the result must be favorable. Foreigners should not be selected for such an enterprise; let it be completely American; and if the truth were known, this is the rock upon which past undertakings of this nature stranded. By foreigners I mean those who are more interested in pushing the trade of their own countries than ours—men who often take American agencies in order to kill American trade.

I believe this port could be made the terminus of such an enterprise, for the southern portion of Brazil.

Our manufacturers, I believe, are much to blame for the small amount of trade done with this people; were a similar system pursued in any country it could not result more favorably.

It is expected that cash remittances or letters of credit (a thing very difficult to effect by the retailer, and he is the medium through which we must dispose of our goods) should accompany orders for articles of which they have only seen illustrations or advertisements, and this in face of the fact that deceptive concerns, in many cases, were the first to send out to Brazil their flaming catalogues, catering for the trade of this peo-

ple, and upon receivng an order with the cash, not always complying with their enthusiastic promises.

Again, our manufacturers seem to think that all they have to do in order to introduce their goods, is to send out their agent from time to time. This may be all that is necessary where there is an American house in said interest, but otherwise it is quite a different matter.

What permanent good can be expected, towards the introduction of American manufactures, from parties who have little idea of and no inclination to learn the practical use of our inventions, from their strong European interests? They will accept sample lots, in order to keep them out of the hands of other parties and out of the market; but should some inquiring mind dig them out of their obscurity, they will be shown with that indifference which soon communicates itself to the customer. Even should the customer have the courage to desire (after this cool reception) an explanation of its practical utility, it is a question if he is not treated to an account of the last ball, or the probability of the present political party retaining power. The customer retires disgusted; the article is thrown back to its long resting-place, with an epithet from the clerk, not very laudable to Americans in general, and the manufacturer in particular.

I doubt much if our inventions are not, in the hands of some, looked upon as curiosities.

In time the agent comes along, with great expectations, which are doomed to disappointment as his former order meets his view in the merchant's warehouse; and upon demanding an explanation, is told that they are *not suitable for this market.* In other cases, he finds them still in the custom-house, the merchants refusing to receive them on account of bad packing, or some other excuse, when the legitimate reason is, that no interest has been taken in placing the goods properly before the public. In this manner our trade is killed by indifference or design.

I can but reiterate my remarks in former report. What is necessary is to have our inventions and manufactures placed in the hands of live Americans, where they can be seen and put into practical operation with full explanation as to their uses and utility; then, and not till then, will we see a change.

We want men of energy; men who will not take no for an answer; men whose hearts beat in unison with the work before them, and have faith in ultimate success; who, with patience and determined pluck, root out the old, and plant the new; men capable of selling an article at first declined; in other words, "salesmen." We have a stupendous work before us, let it be accomplished in true American style.

One point must not be lost sight of, and that is, a favorable presentation of our goods as to price. They have heretofore been classed as luxuries, if we take the exorbitant trade profits placed upon them as any indication of classing goods.

American agencies should be established where we have no house in said interest, exclusively. In many localities our consular officers could act in such capacity. This would place our manufactures favorably before and within the reach of the people, for at present, in many instances, our goods are driven from a market simply from this cause alone.

Are our manufacturers really in earnest in this matter? If so, let them think of some of these hints as to the necessities of the hour.

The time has come for us to exhibit the superiority of almost every thing we manufacture, and which is just what is wanted by this people. At present most of our goods reach us by way of Rio de Janeiro, and

aside from the duties (which have recently been augmented 10 per cent.), the expenses of that expensive port—first profit or commission of importer; then bought upon 6 to 12 months' time, at a premium of 1 per cent. per month; extra packing, freight, entering a second custom-house, expenses attending each turn; add to these the 15 to 25 per cent of the retailer, and one can have some idea of the figure which the consumer must pay for our goods. All this can be changed by the agencies, and sales effected in accordance to reduction in prices.

With this port a sort of barter trade could be made for such Brazilian products as coffee, hides, horns, lumber, &c., each of which I herewith make separate reports upon, thereby fostering the enterprise first mentioned in this report, as well as giving an impetus to trade. He who is alive to this kind of trade will be the coming man. All this is in the hands of our manufacturers. I have every faith that it will give satisfactory results to all concerned who enter into the work sensibly.

HOW THE ENGLISH SECURE BRAZILIAN TRADE.

The English are securing every concession in their power, such as railroads, gas and water works, telegraph and steamboat lines; this is why they have such influence in these markets. Their money is ready to inaugurate any of the above-mentioned undertakings, provided a national guarantee, say of 5 to 7 per cent., is secured them. English directors and engineers are then set at work, and English work-shops are enlivened with orders, while we sit quietly looking on and wonder why this trade is against us. These capitalists, in my opinion, care or trouble themselves very little as to the practicability or success of these enterprises; all they care for is to build and equip them, with a sharp lookout for the guarantee. Have we no live men equal to the occasion?

WHAT WE MUST DO.

If we desire a foreign trade, our merchants, manufacturers, or capitalists must leave their offices or be represented abroad, and they should have every protection which the government can possibly throw around them; and if our facilities are not equal to this extra demand upon them, let them be increased, and as this is done a corresponding reduction in cost of production must be felt up to a certain point, which will place us in a position to compete favorably with European cheap labor. Never let it be said that the Americans have found their masters in this respect. It would seem as though we were continually hunting some big home hurrah, which ends in nothing, while our first attention should be given to building up a big foreign trade.

In the mean time it might be of some interest to find out who is to blame for the enormous balance of trade against us with this country.

M. W. COMSETT,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Desterro, Santa Catharina, September 10, 1882.

Statistics of the population of the province of Santa Catharine, Brazil, including both free and slave.

[As per census of 1875 (latest).]

No.	Municipalities.	Towns and villages.	Where located.	Free population.	Slave population.	Total.	Remarks.
1	Desterro	1. N. S. do Desterro	Island St. Catharine	7,486	1,122	8,608	Settled in 1657.
		2. N. S. das Necessidades do São Antonio	do	2,601	414	3,015	
		3. N. S. da Lapa do Ribeirão	do	2,722	275	2,977	
		4. São Joãs Baptista do Rio Vermelho	do	1,582	186	1,768	
		5. São Francisco de Paula da Canasvieras	do	3,469	385	3,854	
		6. S. S. Trindade behind the mountain	do	2,175	117	2,292	
		7. N. S. da Conceicão da Logoã	do	2,734	441	3,175	
2	São Miguel	1. São Miguel da Terra (mainland)	do	9,357	1,071	10,428	Settled in 1747; city inaugurated in 1833.
3	São José	1. São José	Mainland	8,078	1,095	9,173	Settled in 1750.
		2. N. S. do Rosario do Enseada de Brito	do	2,239	4	2,243	Settled in 1651; Portuguese.
		3. S. Pedro d'Alcantara	do	2,288	100	2,388	Settled in 1828; German.
		4. São Joaquim de Garopaba	do	2,931	476	3,407	Inaugurated 1830.
		5. S Amaro do Cubatão	do	3,526	334	3,860	Inaugurated 1854.
		6. S. Joaquim (on coast of)	do	1,509	225	1,734	1818; expended 5,383,458 reis for colony; Portuguese.
4	S. Sebastiao de Tijucas	1. S. Sebastiao of Tijucas Granda	do	3,751	550	4,301	
		2. São Joãs Baptista of the Upper Tijucas	do	2,638	177	2,815	
		3. S. Bom Jesus Porto Bello	do	2,967	304	3,271	
5	N. S. da São Francisco	1. N. S. da Graca of S Francisco	do	6,419	881	7,300	
		2. N. S. da Gloria of Tahy	do	1,791	223	2,014	1842, by the French (failed); inaugurated a city 1850.
		3. N. S. da Conceicão of Barra Velha	do	2,672	216	2,888	
		4. Senhor Bom Jesus of Paraty	do	2,753	372	3,125	Inaugurated 1854.
6	Itajahy	1. Santissimo Sacramento of Itajahy	do	6,245	501	6,746	1820 and 1825 to 1870; colonies started.
		2. N. S. Penha de Itapacaroy	do	2,029	282	2,311	Inaugurated 1839.
		3. N. S. do Bom Succisso de Camboriú	do	3,277	256	3,533	
		4. S. Pedro Apostolo do Upper Biguassú	do	8,869	53	8,922	Church erected 1838; German.
7	Lages	1. N. S. dos Prasereo de Lages	do	5,122	804	5,926	
		2. N. S. do Patrocimo de Biguassú	do	2,325	237	2,562	
8	Coritibanos	1. N. S. da Conceicão de Coritibanos	do	2,072	119	2,191	
		2. São João de Campos Novas	do	1,936	200	2,136	
9	Joinville	1. S. Francisco Xavier de Joinville	do	7,575	75	7,650	1851 settled by Germans.
10	Laguna	1. São Antonio dos Anjos da Laguna	do	6,507	973	7,480	1651 camps opened; discovered by Portuguese to Rio Grande.
		2. São João de Tmaruby	do	4,279	618	4,897	
		3. Bom Jesus do Soccoro da Pascaria Brava	do	2,024	528	2,552	
		4. Sant' Anna da Mirim	do	2,733	224	2,957	
		5. Sant' Anna da Villa Nova	do	1,215	127	1,342	
		6. S. Ozabel Theerciopolis	do	1,190	.....	1,190	German colony (1850).
11	Tubarão	1. N. S. da Piedade da Tubarão	do	6,888	720	7,608	German colony (1849).
		2. N. S. Mai dos Homens de Araranguá	do	4,843	299	5,142	
	Itajahy	5. Colony of Blumenaú	do	15,710	.....	15,710	1850 settled by Germans under Dr. Blumenaú as director; this census was taken in 1882.
				160,528	14,984	175,512	

SUPPLEMENTS TO FOREGOING REPORT.

The following ten inclosures accompanied Mr. Comsett's report, and are herewith given as necessary to the full understanding of the prime question of how to enlarge American trade in Southern Brazil. These supplementary reports receive additional interest from the fact that South Brazil has never before been commercially written up from an American consular standpoint, and a full understanding of its trade environments is of the first importance to our exporters and importers.

1. Port and port charges of Desterro.
2. The hide and horn export trade.
3. The woods of Southern Brazil.
4. Desterro coffee.
5. Labor and wages.
6. Cost of living in Desterro.
7. Colonization in South Brazil.
8. Abuse of American seamen.
9. The aborigines.
10. Railroads.

PORT AND PORT-CHARGES OF DESTERRO.

(*Supplement No.* 1.)

This port is second only to that of Rio de Janeiro, and the last good one in the southern portion of Brazil, where vessels can enter and clear in almost any wind and at any time, especially so now upon the illumination of the new light upon Arvorede Island. There is never less than 28 feet of water up to the fort at Island Santa Cruz, and good anchorage anywhere inside of the outer point of Island Santa Catharine. Accompanying this report is a chart* showing channel, and land marks for keeping the same, with depth of water at low tide, from recent soundings, so that a pilot will not be necessary.

The bay is open and free, the only difficulty to be encountered being a bank of soft clay or mud, which has been deposited by the washings of the river Bigussu, and has been collecting for years, thus forming a flat of some three miles across; otherwise, vessels drawing 17 feet could easily reach this city. The channel is wide and free from rocks other than marked on chart. Vessels can tack up and down; for this, however, a pilot would be necessary, as delays might be caused by running into too shallow water.

The southern channel is not so free, being very narrow and having many rocks. While there is some two feet more of water than upon the North Flat, still very few vessels enter this bar, as there are no pilots to be had at the entrance; many, however, clear this way.

The rise and fall of the tide at this city is 5 and 6 feet; the same in the channels.

The tides flow in both north and south; meet at a point indicated on chart, in front of the city, and thence flow back. During strong south winds, the surface water is forced over this line, and especially so on the occasion of a pamparo, when quite a rough sea is created, and the waters banked up to unusual height. At such times, all loading, discharging, and even boat service have to be suspended. At times these continue two and three days, but usually spend themselves within the first twenty-four hours; no danger to shipping, as anchorage is good.

* The charts mentioned in these supplementary reports were not received at the Department.

Small yachts seek shelter around the point of high land to the north, in rear of the city (Praia de Fora). The steamers have to stop here on such occasions, discharge into lighters, and await abatement of wind to come to the city. A pleasant walk of from fifteen to twenty minutes from the plaza brings one to this landing.

This port is one of the healthiest on the Brazilian coast. Epidemics seldom reach us, and never affect the shipping. In fact the north and south winds prevail alternately, three and three days, having a clean sweep up and down the bay, clearing it of all malaria which might otherwise remain.

The expenses of the port are small. Cargoes are loaded and discharged by lighters of from eight to twenty tons each. As it is the custom for charterers to deliver and receive cargo along ship-side, no such expenses come upon the vessel. Coal ships run into a wharf upon the outskirts of the city to discharge. As there is no road from here, other vessels cannot avail themselves of its benefits; still one could be built at small outlay, and much delay and expense saved.

There is no dry dock here, and at times great difficulty is experienced in repairing vessels; still there is a natural inlet which could be converted into such, for vessels of 17 feet draft. But this calls for enterprise, an article not very prevalent here when capital is required.

In times of war, this is the southern rendezvous, or naval station, for Brazil. Some years past (as I am informed) the English endeavored to secure it as a naval station. I have no information as to why the idea was abandoned. This island in their hands, where they would have a free entrance for their manufactures, would facilitate their monopoly of this market.

Could we secure one of the small islands below (at north entrance) as a naval depot or coaling station, it would not be a bad acquisition. For naval vessels there is good anchorage, good harbor for boat exercise, room for land drills, cheap and healthy port. Yet, while close to the island, the place is some ten miles from this city, which is a drawback. The bay is full of fish. Beef, fowls, eggs, and fruit in abundance. Mail service good; from five to nine steamers per month each way, north and south. The future of this port must be of great importance, as it is destined to become the terminus of the railroad interests of the southern portion of Brazil—first connecting this province with that of Rio Grande do Sul (by rail with Porto Alegre), and becoming eventually the port of that province. This will open up vast sections of unexplored wilderness, and set the railroad interest in motion.

Directions for entering and clearing South Bar at Port of Desterro, Island of Santa Catharine, east or west of Ilha do Largo.

Clearing, to pass east of Ilha do Largo, leaving Ilha das Ratos to the north, run for and pass the Boia do Catepello, to the west, continuing until in line or abreast of Ilhata dos Larangeira; then run direct for P^{ta} da Enseada, to within 400 meters, when place bow direct for center of outer bar or passage, passing within 150 to 200 meters of Ilha das Cardos to the west, running between the two buoys, but close to and east of the one to the west. It has been found best to run closer to light-house than fort, on account of tides.

Clearing west of Ilha do Largo.

Leaving Ilha dos Ratos, run for Boia do Catepello, passing it to the west; after which run in direction of Lagos (or rocks), passing Ilha do

Largo to the east (outside of rock marked); after passing, run direct for P^{ta} da Enseada, to within 400 meters; then place bow to center of outer bar or passage, and follow instructions above.

Entering South Bar or Passage.

The observation made on clearing should be followed as to light-house, buoys, and Ilha das Cardos, running direct for P^{ta} do Cedro to within 800 metros; then run in direct line to South Point, and just east of Ilha dos Largos, pass to the east of same (outside of rock), and run to P^{ta} do Abrahao, until the center of city is uncovered, west of Boia do Catepello; then run direct for Ilha dos Ratos; when in front of most southeast church-steeples (or bell-towers), run in taking soundings, and anchor.

To pass West of Ilha dos Largos.

After passing Ilha das Cardos, run to P^{ta} de Praia de Fora, to within 800 meters; then take direction to P^{ta} do Abrahao until Ilha dos Ratos is in view, west of Boia do Catepello; then run direct for Ilha dos Ratos; when in front of city, follow instructions above-mentioned.

Notes and observations on chart of North Channel (or bar).

Vessels entering must leave the fort at Santa Cruz to the north, put the bow S. 4 S. W., until the small islands, Guarares, have been passed; then run straight for the center of the passage (or Estreito), then continue on outside of small Coal Island until in front of the most southeast church-steeple, or bell-towers; run in, taking soundings, and anchor.

The large white building to the extreme south of city is the hospital, and must not be taken as church above referred to.

With an excavation of 6 feet on Taboleiro, which is soft mud, and easily accomplished, vessels of 17 to 18 feet draft could reach this city.

Port charges, &c.

Tonnage dues per register.

Vessels 100 to 200 tons register	$22 00
Vessels 200 to 400 tons register	33 00
Vessels 400 to 700 tons register	44 00
Vessels all over 700 tons register	55 00
Licenses of whatever nature, stamp of	10
Dispatching officer in custom-house	8 00
Dispatching officer in custom-house for whalers	6 00
Hospital dues, as per man, under master	35

Whalers, or vessels in distress, can only enter for 5 days (where no cargo is broken); if extension is desired, permission is granted upon sufficient reasons given (through petition); no trouble is ever experienced in this matter to our vessels.

Stevedores' charges.—As there is no regular tariff, much depends upon the demand for such services; but the prices paid per day, or during time hatches are unsealed, with rations, are usually $1.75 to $2.25.

Lighterage.—No fixed prices can be given. Everything of this nature is made a question of special agreement, but genenally 50 to 75 cents per ton is demanded. Flour per barrel, 4 cents; kerosene per case, 2 cents. These prices are for the shipping within the port; if on the Taboleiro or at Santa Cruz, double, if not treble, these prices are asked.

Pilotage.—From or to Santa Cruz, $1 per foot draft. From or to South Bar, $13 to $18.

HIDE AND HORN EXPORT FROM DESTERRO.

(Supplement No. 2.)

Hides have been an article of export from this port for years. In 1881 the number reached 23,209. There has been quite a corner created by the tanners during the past six months. The cattle come in from the camps in droves from 50 to 100 head; the drover, in view of past plighted faith, demands cash payments; this the butcher is unable to make, being very poor. The tanner here comes forward, becomes the purchaser, and delivers the cattle to the butcher for slaughter, reserving the hides at a low price, viz: cow-skins, 7 to 8 milreis each; ox-hides, large, 10 milreis each.

Each day the butcher kills he must deposit the cash received for meat, and deliver the hides. At the end of each month accounts are balanced. All over the cost of the cattle, discounting the hides, belongs to the butcher, the tanner being satisfied with the low price of and the benefits he derives from the control of the hides. This has reference only to those killed for the market in this city.

Have heard that the mode of drying them is not suitable for the American market. It is thus: Long poles are placed from right fore to left hind leg, and from left fore to right hind leg; others crosswise, so as to stretch well in every direction. The hide then is left in the sun to dry.

Before shipping they are passed through a solution of arsenic and dried. This preserves them from any attack of worms or insects.

Horns and horn piths have also been exported to Europe; 20,440 in 1881; returns of 1882 not yet rendered.

These exports have all been made in small lots in steamers.

Any other information possible in this regard I will furnish if desirable.

THE WOODS OF SOUTHERN BRAZIL.

(Supplement No. 3.)

In my last commercial report of April 1 ultimo, I mentioned only the fact of there being large timber growth in this province, which, at some future day, must be a source of great wealth to the country.

I herewith forward a brief description of the best woods to be found, of which large quantities are exported to other South American ports. I am collecting samples of each for future reference.

1. *Almecega or Icicariba.*—Grows abundantly in the northern parts of the province; is of a violet color, good hard wood, but subject to worms.

2. *Arariba Roza.*—Grows abundant in every part of the province; reaches great dimensions; is very hard, and of a rose color; polishes well; is greatly esteemed by cabinet-makers.

3. *Arariba Yellow.*—Grows to great dimensions, not unfrequently to 4 feet in diameter; of a yellowish color, which soon fades; used in cabinet-work, building, &c.; is one of the best of woods, exposed or otherwise; of great durability for bridges or railroad sleepers.

4. *Arma de Serra.*—Grows to good height, but not large in diameter; is very hard; of yellowish color; used in general building purposes.

5. *Cabriuna.*—Grows to great dimensions; at the heart is very hard; violet color; used in general building, &c.

6. *Cabrue.*—Grows to great dimensions; is very hard, and of great durability, exposed or otherwise; of an ash color.

7. *Camboata.*—There are two kinds, white and violet; grows to good height, but not large in diameter; good woods; used in general building.

8. *Cambuy.*—There are two qualities, large and small; the second is preferable for its durability, exposed or otherwise; is very hard.

9. *Canella Preta.*—Grows to great dimensions; is highly esteemed by both builders and cabinet-makers; has great durable qualities; is very hard and very handsome when polished; has a cinnamon odor.

10. *Canella Amarella.*—Of large growth, but more suitable for indoor work, as it will not stand the weather; of a yellowish color.

11. *Canella Sassafras.*—Grows to great dimensions; is very fragrant; of a yellow color; very hard and durable, exposed or otherwise.

12. *Canella Veado.*—Very little in the province; of great durability; small growth.

13. *Canjarana.*—Not very abundant; is hard and heavy; very durable and straight; of a reddish color.

14. *Carvalho.*—When dry is very hard, very durable, exposed or otherwise; of an ash color.

15. *Cutia.*—Grows straight; small in diameter; is very hard and durable.

16. *Figueira Vermelha.*—Very abundant; grows to great dimensions, but its durability is very limited.

17. *Garuva.*—Very abundant; good for internal use, canoes, &c.; is of the family of canellas.

18. *Guacá.*—Much esteemed by cabinet-makers; is very handsome when polished.

19. *Guamerim* (Iron).—It is so qualified on account of its great hardness; does not grow to great dimensions; not very straight; esteemed by bridge and house builders, also for railroad sleepers; is very durable.

20. *Guamerim* (yellow).—Grows tall, but small in diameter; is very hard, and splits easily.

21. *Guarapari.*—Grows to great dimensions; is very hard and durable, exposed or otherwise; is used in sugar-mills, bridges, and general building; is highly esteemed for its good qualities.

22. *Guarapicica.*—The heart of this tree grows to some 10 to 15 inches diameter, with black variegated lines, and when polished is one of the handsomest of woods; highly esteemed by cabinet-makers.

23. *Guarajuva* (yellow and white).—The first grows to large dimensions; very hard; good for inside work; very durable; the second is of little value, being subject to worms.

24. *Icára.*—Belongs to the family of cocoa tree; grows to great height; very straight; small in diameter (say 5 inches); good for laths, &c.

25. *Ipé.*—Is one of the hardiest of woods; of great dimensions; dark yellow color; used for rollers or cylinders in sugar-mills, hubs, bridges, &c.; is very durable, exposed or otherwise; very elastic, and highly esteemed.

26. *Jacaranda* (Rosewood).—Not very abundant; its utility is too well known to need any description; there are two qualities, black and red.

27. *Larangeira do Matto.*—Hard and heavy; grows to good dimensions; of a dark color, but very subject to worms.

28. *Louro.*—Grows to great dimensions; very straight; one of the bes of woods for general use; also for naval construction; very elastic and

durable, exposed or otherwise. This wood has been in use in the church roof here for over one hundred years, and has no appearance of decay. When green has a whitish color, but grows darker with age. One cannot speak too highly of this wood.

29. *Lucurana.*—Grows to large dimensions; is highly esteemed by builders, house and naval; very hard and durable.

30. *Oleo preto* (*copahiva*).—Grows to great dimensions; esteemed by cabinet-makers; is one of the handsomest of woods polished. Exposed to the weather its duration is very limited, but for indoor use will stand well. Little difference in color to rosewood.

31. *Paroba* (red).—Is a hard, compact wood, with streaks of rose color; esteemed in naval construction on account of its great durability. Of late it has been used in cabinet work to general satisfaction.

32. *Paroba* (white).—Is also esteemed for naval use; qualities same as red; difference only in color.

33. *Pindabuna.*—Grows to great dimensions; its heart is black, and is much esteemed by turners, for knobs, handles, &c.

34. *Pinho* (pine).—Grows to great dimensions, 7 to 8 feet in diameter; is different to the United States pine in its leaves and branches, but very similar in its wood, though not as durable; as it grows in the mountain districts in the interior, where there are no roads, it is difficult to bring to market; when roads are opened, this wood will be a source of great wealth to the country.

35. *Sassafras.*—Of small growth; has a strong sassafras odor; of medicinal properties; this is the true sassafras tree.

36. *Sebrajú.*—Of a red color; small dimensions; the most durable of woods, exposed or otherwise; much esteemed in cabinet work; polishes well.

37. *Tajuba.*—Is equal to sebrajú in quality.

38. *Cedro* (cedar).—This wood is too well known to need description, grows to great dimensions.

There are many other qualities of wood, but the above comprises the best known.

DESTERRO COFFEE.

(*Supplement No.* 4.)

This island has been famous for the peculiar aroma of its coffee, said to be equal if not superior to any grown in Brazil, and thought to compare favorably with Mocha or Java. This latitude is high for its cultivation. Upon the mainland the plants, or trees, are subject to the frost, whilst here, surrounded by the sea, it is believed the atmosphere becoming impregnated with the salt preserves and gives the flavor. Very little is exported; almost all being consumed in the province, at 1 milreis per 15 kilograms in advance of any other in the market. Several attempts have been made to introduce other crops, but without success.

There has been an impetus to increase the crop, and many thousand trees have been set out, but as it takes four years to yield, we shall not have much of any result for the next two years. Still the crop is gradually increasing. No statistics can be given, only of such as is exported. So much for its quality. I would like to be able to speak as favorably of its preparation for market. The most rude method is in practice. The berry is picked from the tree, or allowed to fall and afterwards

gathered, and spread out to dry in the sun. Then the hull is removed by use of the mortar and pestle, when it is sent to market. There is no assorting, polishing—nothing to increase its market value; still its claims are recognized. Will send samples if required.

I depend upon the opinion of all Americans who test it, together with the universal verdict of foreigners and natives, as I do not consider myself a connoisseur.

LABOR AND WAGES.

(*Supplement No.* 5.)

Labor.—The slave has ever been depended upon for such, both skilled and unskilled, it being looked upon by the native with disrespect; but of late years foreigners have come in and caused a reverse of this feeling, so that now the native is giving his attention more to the necessities of the day. Still, those who can obtain government appointments, lead professional lives, or become political intriguers, will still do so in preference to learning any mechanical trade, or just as long as they can keep soul and body together, and good raiment for the latter, to the sacrifice of every home comfort; therefore we have but little native labor. This will apply as well to the country farmers, for they also believe in little work. Just when the larder is low will they exert themselves. Little dependence can be placed upon the native laborer, as when his ends are answered it is no uncommon thing for him to quit work until necessity compels his return. But the foreigner is causing him to be more circumspect in his dealings; also the gradual emancipation of the slave is assisting this question much, but a great deal has yet to be learned.

Wages much depend upon the demand, but those given are prices usually in vogue. House and ship carpenters, masons, cabinet-makers, calkers, painters, skilled labor, per day, $1.50 to $2; unskilled labor, per day, 50 cents to $1; clerk hire, per month, $10 to $50; farm hands, per month, $10 to $15; female house servants, per month, $5 to $10. Eight hours constitute a day's work.

COST OF LIVING AT DESTERRO.

(*Supplement No.* 6.)

I find living at this port much more expensive than in the United States. True, there are some articles which are very reasonable, among them the natives' necessaries of life, while others are equally more expensive, as the following table will show.

I believe there will be good 50 per cent. in favor of the States; still, one can live, and many do, very cheaply, but they are those who can subsist upon the fish and fruits with which the waters and forests of the province abound. With their "farinha" and sugar patch, a little dried beef, not forgetful of viola and coffee, the natives pass what would be to Americans a miserable existence. Their clothing is mostly homespun of the coarsest texture; their dwellings nothing but ranches, plastered with mud, thatched with leaves; mother earth for floors. Thus many of the poor natives live, and seem happy, with no desire to bettter their

conditions. The climate favors them much; still there are times when good warm clothing is very comfortable.

In the city the buildings are of brick, plastered, tiled, and very respectable. Here is where my remarks at the opening of this report have reference; still the ranch exists within the city lines, and in the surroundings is the rule.

The foreigner, in many cases, falls into the native custom of living, and herein is where he is able, from superior thrift, to lay by.

Prices of the necessaries of life.

Dried beef*	per pound	$0 09½
Farinha*	per bushel	75
Coffee*	per pound	$0 09 to 12
Sugar*	do	5 to 8
Fish*	do	2 to 10
Rum*	per gallon	25
Butter	per pound	50 to 60
Cheese	do	25 to 50
Rice	do	4 to 7
Hams	do	50 to 55
Soap	do	7 to 10
Refined sugar	do	9 to 14
Onions	per 100	1 00 to 1 25
Molasses	per gallon	35 to 40
Vinegar	do	25
Tea	per pound	1 75 to 2 00
Kerosene	per gallon	45
Fine salt, in quart bottles	each	40
Fresh beef	per pound	7 to 14
Potatoes	per bushel	1 50 to 2 00
Flour	per pound	7 to 10
Corn meal	do	2 to 3
Bread:		
Soft	per pound	8
Hard	do	12½
Lard	do	20
Pork	do	18 to 20
Fowls	each	25 to 50
Turkeys	do	1 50 to 2 00
Eggs	per dozen	16 to 32
Codfish, salt	per pound	16 to 20
Beans	per bushel	1 00 to 1 50
Canned goods	each	50 to 75

Dry goods, domestics, from 100 to 125 per cent. over cost in the United States; house rents, from $10 to $50 per month; store rents, from $15 to $75 per month.

COLONIZATION IN SOUTH BRAZIL.

(*Supplement No. 7.*)

For many years attempts have been made to colonize this province from different parts of Europe. Large sums of money have been expended, but from mismanagement or improper system, under which they have been inaugurated, not much has been accomplished. They have yet to learn that railroads are the great national developers of this nineteenth century, and the moneys above mentioned would have done much toward building some of the many projected lines, which

* The native necessaries.

would have doubled the immigration. True, there are some German colonies in more or less flourishing condition when we take the surroundings into consideration; also, one Italian. Aside from these there is nothing. To us, even these would be considered very indifferent.

The location has also much to do with their prosperity, situated among hills and mountains; not level land sufficient for a decent flower garden. The colonists are encamped with a hoe, ax, knife, and brush-hook for agricultural implements. A few seeds are thus deposited in the virgin forest, and they are expected to revolutionize the agricultural interest of the empire.

I suppose they are waiting for some live Yankee to come along to introduce that which has secured to us the markets of Europe—agricultural implements and machinery. This time must come sooner or later.

There are no roads—a thing we first build they leave to the last—and to some of the colonies not even good mule roads. Thus the transportation of produce to market costs almost all it will bring, and everything for their use is very expensive. Still, the steady German plods along, raising large families, seemingly content, having his cabin, around which he has collected his cattle, pigs, fowls, mule or horse—fulfilling the old maxim, "Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise." It is a question if any of them ever enjoyed better in fatherland; still, the amount of labor spent here would have rendered far greater results had it been expended upon some of our Western lands, but it might have been to the sacrifice of much of their present contentment.

The land is not very productive, and fertilizers seldom thought of and never used; there is no lime in, or depth to the soil, as a rule.

They are just now trying to colonize the land of the Princess, in the southern portion of this province, but they seem to be traveling in the same path of their predecessors—of locating and opening up communication afterwards. I have no faith in this system, but it is expected to bring from Europe (principally Germany) immigrants.

There is a question which this country must meet sooner or later: Do their colonists owe allegiance to the Brazilian Government or to a foreign potentate? The latter is claimed by many as the true position, and thus why emigration to this country is receiving the encouragement of the German Government rather than to the United States.

Whenever a proper railroad system shall be inaugurated, opening up the interior, there can be no doubt but that good colonies could be established, but the general government should give up its dog-in-the-manger-like theory and throw open its mineral wealth to whoever will develop it; then reduce the price of land, which ranges from $4.50 to $30 per acre. Yet, all this will not secure to them the glorious results *we* are receiving from our immigration, for they have not the impetuous Yankee in the background pressing the immigrant on and on until he astonishes himself and all Europe. It must be remembered the immigrant s quite a different being after he has become Americanized.

As a general rule, the passage is paid from Europe to the colony; then, aside from the agricultural implements above mentioned, a cabin, not to exceed $10; cooking utensils and provisions for such time as necessary in getting first crop. I believe we receive a better class than those who emigrate to Brazil.

ABUSE OF AMERICAN SEAMEN.

(*Supplement No. 8.*)

My attention has been called by several parties claiming to be Americans, and I believe them to be such; also, by the Brazilian authorities, to an abuse which should not be permitted to continue, as it places our seamen in bad repute, causing complications and ill-feelings where none but the best should exist; all from the actions of a few unprincipled foreign ship-masters.

I am informed that when foreign vessels visit our shores they frequently lose their men, owing, without doubt, to the increase of wages for their services. Their places must be filled; therefore extra inducements are offered to American seamen to ship, but which are never intended to be fulfilled. They are shipped for a round voyage and discharge in some port within the United States, but at the first port where cheaper men can be had they are told they can go ashore. If they refuse, cruelty is brought into play until the seaman is glad to accept any kind of a discharge, even to the sacrifice of wages. When this cannot accomplish the object, a leave ashore is granted, when the seaman is without much trouble made intoxicated; and when he does not report at expiration of said leave, a claim of desertion is made out, when wages, clothing, and all are confiscated by the master; even when the man has been in sight all the time.

When men cannot be had in the regular way they are shanghaid, as it is called. The *modus operandi*, more or less, is this: The man is drugged or made intoxicated, and in this state taken on shipboard, at night; or, in other words, kidnapped from our shores. At the first port possible he is left upon the beach, in a foreign land, without friends or money, and refused any assistance. His next move is to the American consul, to find there are no provisions for such, coming under a foreign flag. He then seeks relief from the consul under whose flag he enters port, with usually the same result. He is then obliged to return to the beach a wiser man; hunger begins to tell upon him, and as there are always kind friends with a glass of grog, but few with a loaf, he is next heard from as being in the hands of the police. Reporting himself as an American, the authorities request of the consul provisions made for the man, which officially has to be declined. Thus he is left without any protection.

Our seamen are shipped in foreign ports upon the same plan, thus causing much trouble and embarrassment.

As there are several aggravated cases at this port, I herewith submit two of them, with their written statements, for such action as is considered best.

As far as the Dutch consul placing William Wilson in prison, or relieving him, Wilson is in error; still, he was honest in his statement, as he was given so to understand by some of the police; otherwise his story, as far as this part goes, is true.

Both Mykins and Wilson have gone to Parana to work on the railroad from Paranagua to Coritiba, as there was no chance to ship direct to the States.

Foreign ship-masters should not be permitted to ship our seamen, except before American shipping commissioners, when their act should be explained to them in its true light; also said ship-masters should be made responsible for the fulfillment of their contracts.

THE CASE OF WILLIAM WILSON, AN AMERICAN SEAMAN.

DESTERRO, 25*th of August*, 1882.

To the American Consular Agent at Desterro:

SIR: I, the undersigned, certify that I am an American, having been born in Providence, R. I.; am twenty-two years of age; have, since I was thirteen years old, been at sea under the American flag, but being ashore at Swansea, England, shipped on board the Hollendez bark Uni, Captain Franklin, for ——— and return, but upon entering Desterro, St. Catharine, was treated most cruelly both by officers and crew, as I was the only American on board. I would not desert; was given liberty ashore; got intoxicated and placed in prison by the Hollendez consul. After remaining there a few days was taken out by same consul; as they did not send me aboard, was obliged to sit about upon the wharves. Not having much to eat, was offered something to drink, and that night found myself again in prison with my head badly cut. Was kept there some two days, when a shipmate came and told the police authorities that the captain had sent for me. They at once set me at liberty, but when a little way from the prison my shipmate denied that the captain wanted me; that he came of his own accord to get my release. I went straight to the captain. He refused to say anything to me, declaring I was a deserter, when I had not been out of sight since I had left the ship. I then asked for my clothes and wages, when he said he would not give one or the other. I told him I would go aboard for them, when he said he would shoot me if I did so. I then tried to ship and get a chance in an Italian vessel bound to Montevideo, but because I had no clothes would not accept me. I then went to the American consul for assistance. He could do nothing for me, but called upon the authorities, and with them visited the Hollendez consul, who responded he could give no assistance. I was thus left upon the beach without a cent, and no means to earn any; was ashamed to be continually asking assistance of the American consul, and being very hungry, having nothing to eat, in dispair was driven to accept drink. Then at last found myself in prison, charged with drawing a knife and cutting a policeman when arrested, though I have no knowledge of it.

Upon the following day I was being tried, the American consul came to my assistance, and succeeded in having the indictment set aside; this, without doubt, saving me from imprisonment; all from the actions of Captain Franklin.

I am now in prison, where I am told I must remain until I can be shipped away from this port. I have learnt a lesson, never to place my foot upon a ship under a foreign flag.

I make this statement to serve as it will, and certify to the truth of every word herein.

WILLIAM WILSON.

THE CASE OF JOHN H. MYKINS, AN AMERICAN SEAMAN.

To the American Consular Agent at Desterro, Island of St. Catharine:

SIR: I desire to call your attention to an abuse from which I am suffering, caused by parties hereinafter named.

I belong to the crew of the U. S. S. Franklin. On the 12th of January last being ashore at Norfolk, Va., I was drugged and taken on board of a steam tug at night, and placed on board of a Hollendez brigantine [name illegible], Capt. A. Houwen, at Hampton Roads, bound for Rio Grande do Sul. I had my man-of-war uniform on at the time. In the morning I desired to be put ashore, but was refused and forced to sign articles by captain and a ship-broker named Bullock, on Main street, Norfolk, Va.

After laying off the bar of Rio Grande unable to enter, was forced to make this port, and from the cruel treatment received was almost unable to do duty. Upon arrival the captain desired me to desert. Then from more abuse I was glad to accept my discharge even at the loss of wages. I at first asked to be taken to the American consulate, but was told there was none; therefore, from threats of imprisonment from some trumped-up charge, came ashore with $6.25.

I am fifty years of age; was born in Baltimore, Md.; am a widower; have four children, two married, residing in Cross street, Federal Hill, Baltimore. Am suffering, as being without doubt registered as a deserter, to which I never had any intention or desire and no party to. Would gladly return to my duty could I do so. I lay these facts before you for your consideration.

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

his
JOHN H. + MYKINS,
mark
Quarter Gunner.

DESTERRO, 26*th of August*, 1882.

THE ABORIGINES OF SOUTH BRAZIL.

(*Supplement No. 9.*)

This province contains a large number of Indians. They occupy the interior, of which little is known. They live in tribes of from three hundred to four hundred; have their chiefs, but live in common; are small in stature, of a very low order, living wholly upon the chase and fruits of the forests; they use no clothing of any kind. During the winter months they go north, reappearing in the spring. They are little if anything above the beasts they hunt. They have of late made some raids upon the pioneers on the frontier of the forest. It is believed that this has been done through deserters from the Brazilian service, who have joined them. They will never make an attack if possible while a man is in sight, and in no instance where fire-arms are in view, of which they have great fear. They will dog a train, and woe to the traveler who neglects to keep guard at night or forgets to carry gun and revolver. Several murders have been committed by them of late, and raiding parties were organized to go in pursuit, which have been stopped by the authorities. The steps taken for the protection of the frontiersman have afforded little or no relief; neither is he permitted to retaliate for wrongs inflicted. In traveling through the forest animals will scent an Indian far off and exhibit more fear than from any other animal of the wilderness; in fact, I am informed their odor, assisted by the oils with which they anoint themselves, is fearful to encounter. Several attempts have been made to have communication with and bring them within civilization, but without success. Several have been captured for a like purpose with same result; they would not eat or drink anything offered them, and finally roll up their tongues, swallow, and choke themselves. Of late years no attempt has been made to civilize them. Their arms are the bow and arrow; flints are inserted in the latter, upon which some poisonous matter is affixed. It is astonishing with what perfection some of these are made when we take into consideration that the only tools they have are from the stone which they themselves make. There are some pretty good marksmen among them, as many can too well testify. They are not, as far as I could learn, of the cannibal order, but not far removed.

PROJECTED RAILROADS IN SOUTH BRAZIL.

(*Supplement No. 10.*)

Having been handed a pamphlet upon the projected lines of railroad for the southern portion of Brazil, I have made copies thereof, one of which I inclose, thinking some of our railroad men might like to know what was going on in this part of South America.

The line from San Francisco, just north of this port, passing here, thence to Porto Alegre, I believe is in the hands of an English company, and they expect the final or third passage through the present House of Deputies to take place in a few days, when work is to be commenced. The chart will otherwise explain itself.

[Translation.]

On the projected lines of railroad in the southern portion of Brazil.

We will divide the execution of the plan of railways herein delineated in the southern part of Brazil into three classes, viz:

1. Lines of great necessity, "urgent," which we designate "primary."
2. Lines in continuation of the above, which we will term "secondary" lines.
3. Ultimately, at a more remote period, as the increase of population will warrant, those we will denominate "final" lines of construction.

PRIMARY LINES.

1. From the best port in the province of Santa Catharina to the city of Porto Alegre, capital of the province of Rio Grande do Sul.
2. From the western part of Rio Grande do Sul. Porto Alegre to Uruguayana.
3. Alegrete to Quarahim.
4. In the southern part of the province of Rio Grande do Sul, from Porto Alegre to Jaguarão.

SECONDARY LINES.

1. From Sorocaba to the bay of San Francisco, province of Santa Catharina.
2. From San Francisco, province of Santa Catharina, to the two rivers San Antonio and Pepery-Guassú.
3. From São Gabriel to Jaguarão, passing through Bagé.
4. From Alegrete to São Borja.
5. From Bagé to the terminus of one of the eastern lines on the frontier.
6. From São Gabriel to Santa Anna do Livramento.

FINAL LINES OF CONSTRUCTION.

1. Those from the ports of Santos, Paranagua, and Desterro, in direction, respectively, of the Colony Douradas, Sete Quedas in Parana, Pepery-Guassú, and São Borja.
2. The lines from São Gabriel, passing through Santa Maria da Boca da Monte, Passo Fundo, and near to the city of Goyaz, may take direction to a point on the right bank of the Amazon, between 9° and 17° long. W. of Rio de Janeiro. This will be the Central Brazilian line, at some point of which, when partially developed, is destined to be the future capital of Brazil.

The lines above mentioned are to run from the ports of Santos, Paranagua, Sao Francisco, and Desterro in direction west, crossing the future Brazilian central line. It is not impossible, or impracticable, that a line could be constructed running from the port of Valparaiso, taking an easterly course, and finding way over these several lines, to the South Atlantic coast.

In a petition we made to the Imperial Government in 1865, from Paris, we asserted, in order to give the province of Rio Grand do Sul a sure and available communication with the ocean, that it would be necessary to unite the capital by rail with the port of Santa Catharina, and that this line might serve as the common junction for the three great international lines, viz:

First. To bring the city of Montevideo within eighty hours from the imperial capital.

Second. To make the Santa Catharina line the terminus for the ports of the republic on the South Pacific coast.

Lastly. To bring the city of Ascuncion, capital of Paraguay, within four days distance from Rio de Janeiro.

By following this plan the result will be our having three railroad lines terminating at as many different points on the frontier of the Empire.

On account of the extraordinary progress developing within the States on the Pacific coast, thereby enlarging the field of our operations, there is a necessity for these lines to meet those from Cobija, Caldera, or Copiapo, which are in search of outlets, the nearest upon the Brazilian coast, thus establishing great interoceanic lines.

NOTE.

Withine the zone, embracing the province of Santa Catharina, between the general mountain range and the ocean, is where colonies have been established, which, under different headings, represent a sum not less than $60,000,000,000 expended by the general government with the intention of developing the interest of this zone. It is here the lands are located which were given to the Imperial Princess as dotal patrimony.

On this continent Washington and the future capital of Brazil, united by a complete system of railroads, shall form the two grand centers, both political and commercial, which shall be the regulator of ideas in this part of the globe.

As the United States of America employ all their efforts to foster through railroads their interest with those of Mexico and the British possessions, so Brazil, with equal energy, should nurse the aspirations of her people in unison with this interest with those of the various independent States on her border.

This we understand ought to be one of the principal objects of those charged with the destinies of the country.

If the traditional policy of Peter the Great of Russia, that the eagle of the Romanoffs should extend its flight to the Bosphorus and the Bay of Bengal, that of Brazil ought to bind together intimately the different points of her possessions, and extend her influence to Cape Horn and the South Pacific.

The locomotive is destined to unite the two oceans, which border the South American continent, assisted by the two grand water-courses, the Amazon and La Plata.

AMERICAN TRADE IN MADAGASCAR.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL WHITNEY, OF TAMATAVE.

I inclose herewith a tabular statement of the United States trade at this port, and the return of navigation, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882.

There is still no means of obtaining statistics of the trade of other nationalities here.

Five United States vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 2,779 tons, entered this port during the year (three came from the United States direct, one came via Réunion, and one via Aden), and all brought United States goods.

One German vessel from the United States direct, bringing United States goods to the amount of about $37,950, also entered this port.

The amount of the imports from the United States, by the five vessels, was $306,738.60. The exports from this port to the United States, as per invoices certified at this consulate, amounted to $310,179.78. Of this amount $163,206.24 was exported by a French firm via Marseilles, and $5,059.11 by a German house via Hamburg; and the produce may have been sold in a European market, as the French and Germans have their invoices certified at this consulate, with the idea of sending their exports to the United States only in the event of that market being the better one on the arrival of the produce in Europe.

The imports, as in previous years, consisted largely of domestic sheetings and shirtings, though there was an increase of general merchandise, the value of which was $3,987.61, against $1,542.10 for the year ending June 30, 1881.

Seven United States vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 3,548 tons, entered the port of Mojunga during the year, bringing United States goods to the value of $95,044. The exports from that port to the United States amounted to $242,332.91.

The Andakabé agency only received its outfit in July last; consequently no returns have, as yet, been received from it, and I do not know if any American vessels were at that port during the year.

The total number of arrivals of merchantmen, of all classes and all nationalities, at this port was 206, and of departures 201; of these 46 were steamers. Aggregate tonnage of arrivals, 37,291; of departures, 35,091. By nationality: 5 Americans (sail), aggregate tonnage 2,779; British, 15 steamers and 88 sail, making 103, aggregate tonnage 7,684; French, 31 steamers and 48 sail, making 79, aggregate tonnage 20,090; German, 12 sail, aggregate tonnage 3,056; Norwegian, 1 sail, tonnage 301; and Hova, or Malagasy, 4 sail, tonnage 3,000. Eighty-five of these vessels were small coasters, under British and French flags, of an aggregate tonnage of 1,309, trading between this port and other points of trade on this coast.

It must be borne in mind that this statement is not of the number of different vessels, but that of the number of arrivals and departures, the coasting vessels having made several trips each; and one steamer in the French mail service, between the islands of Réunion, Nossibé, and Mayotté, has called bimonthly.

Nine men-of-war (two British and seven French) have entered the port during the year.

R. M. WHITNEY,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tamatave, October 9, 1882.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Tamatave, Madagascar, and the United States for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
American brown cottons (domestic) ..... bales..	3,443	$267,750 99		
Remington rifles	3,500	35,000 00		
Metallic cartridges	250,000			
Kerosene oil ..... cases..	516	1,071 50		
Flour ..... barrels..	98	980 00		
Shooks (empty cases)	750	800 00		
General merchandise—clocks, lamps, chairs, watches, &c		1,136 11		
Dry salted hides			70,395	$309,644 78
India rubber ..... pounds..			253,444	
Vanilla beans ..... do....			107	535 00
		306,738 60		310,179 78

Statement showing the imports and exports between Mojunga, Madagascar, and the United States for the year ending June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
American brown cottons (domestic) ..... bales..	1,607	$88,200 00		
Kerosene oil ..... cases..	2,580	3,100 00		
Soap ..... do....	3,600	1,810 00		
Biscuit ..... pounds..	67	1,075 00		
Flour ..... do....	64	403 00		
Chairs ..... dozen..	50	250 00		
Powder ..... pounds..	775	116 00		
Pilot bread ..... barrels..	40½	90 00		
Dry salted hides				$203,874 69
India rubber				38,458 22
		95,044 00		242,322 91

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Tamatave, Madagascar, for the year ending the 30th day of June, 1882.

Flag.	From or to—	Entered.					
		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
American	United States	.....	.....	5	2,779	5	2,779
British	Mauritius and Réunion	15	2,220	88	5,464	103	7,684
French	do	28	11,095	48	6,281	76	17,376
	Marseilles	3	2,714	.....	.....	3	2,714
German	Hamburg and London	.....	.....	12	3,056	12	3,056
Hova	Natal and Mauritius	.....	.....	4	3,000	4	3,000
Norwegian	London	.....	.....	1	301	1	301
	Total	.....	.....	.....	.....	206	37,291

Navigation at the port of Tamatave, &c—Continued.

Flag.	From or to—	Cleared.					
		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
American	United States			5	2,779	5	2,779
British	Mauritius and Réunion	15	2,220	86	5,114	101	7,334
French	do	28	11,095	47	6,074	75	17,169
	Marseilles	2	1,821			2	1,821
German	Hamburg and London			12	3,056	12	3,056
Hova	Natal and Mauritius			3	2,250	3	2,250
Norwegian	London			1	301	1	301
	Total					201	35,091

MEN-OF-WAR.

Flag.	From or to—	Entered.		Cleared.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	Cruising	2	21	2	21
French	do	7	62	6	47
		9	83	8	68

CARRYING TRADE BETWEEN CUBA AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT FORD, OF SAGUA LA GRANDE.

SUGAR CROP AND SHIPMENTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The present year may be recorded as one of unprecedented agricultural prosperity for this jurisdiction. The sugar crop is the largest ever produced here, the famous yield of five years ago falling behind this by 5,000 hogsheads. The increase is due, not only to the exceedingly favorable season, but also to the fact that the planters have entered more extensively into the cultivation of cane.

Year by year Sagua is acquiring a higher commercial standing because of its shipments of sugar to the United States; and it promises in the near future to be a trading port of no small importance. Not only are larger areas devoted to the raising of new cane, but the merchants here, having increased facilities for doing business, are offering better prices than dealers in the jurisdiction of Cienfuegos, thus inducing planters of that jurisdiction to forward their produce to the port of Sagua.

The Sagua and Cienfuegos Railroad Company is extending a branch of its road over to the Caibarien and Santo Espiritu Railroad, tapping that line at Camajuaney. This new road will bring to Sagua a large percentage of the sugar produced in San Juan de los Remedios. The projectors of this branch line estimate that, through it, the addition to present shipments will be from 10,000 to 12,000 hogsheads of sugar annually.

The entire sugar and molasses crop of Sagua is shipped to the United States, excepting about four or five cargoes of perhaps 3,000 hogsheads

which are sent each season by the merchants to the continent of Europe to cover drafts.

I herewith annex a tabular statement of the business done between this consular port and the United States for the past four years, from January 1, 1879, to September 1, 1882. I have to regret, both as an American and as a consular officer, that the exhibit is very far from being a satisfactory one. If, during the next four years, American tonnage continues to decrease and English steam tonnage to increase at its present ratio, the American flag will be seen only above the United States consulate, and the chief business of the consular office will be merely to give certificates of invoices and to draw bills of health for British steamers.

Though reluctant to call attention to what may seem personal matters in connection with official duties, I feel urged to say that, should this decrease of American tonnage continue, the income from the position here will hardly suffice to pay office rent; much less will it be likely to offer compensation or livelihood to any one in charge. I will, therefore, most respectfully call the attention of the department to the expediency of recommending that this consulate be made a salaried one.

Statement showing the shipments of sugar from Sagua Le Grande to the United States from January 1, 1879, to September 1, 1882.

	Invoices.	Fees.	Sugar.				Molasses.	
			Hogsheads.	Tierces.	Boxes.	Bags.	Hogsheads.	Tierces.
1879	312	$2,627 96	88,900	2,640	158	1,621	22,007	2,140
American vessels			71,597	1,976	158	1,021	16,033	1,470
Foreign vessels			17,303	664		600	5,974	670
1880	249	2,202 22	87,258	1,523			16,820	1,579
American vessels			61,994	1,095			12,679	1,168
Foreign vessels			25,264	428			4,141	411
1881	196	2,026 73	86,197	90			13,077	1,287
American vessels			52,638	80			11,783	1,156
Foreign vessels			33,559	10			1,294	131
1882 (to September 1)	216	1,852 94	104,539	773		1,168	21,436	2,155
American vessels			42,515	420			18,218	1,761
Foreign vessels			62,024	353		1,168	3,218	394

	Melada.		Value.	Vessels entered and cleared.	Remarks.
	Hogsheads.	Tierces.			
1879	101		$5,866,785 64	278	
American vessels	81		4,757,144 31	185	Of which 6 were cattle steamers, cleared without cargo.
Foreign vessels	20		1,119,641 33	93	Of which 5 were cattle steamers, cleared with cargo.
1880	4		7,328,284 61	197	
American vessels	4		5,175,193 93	134	Of which 6 were cattle steamers, cleared without cargo.
Foreign vessels			2,153,090 68	63	Of which 1 was a steamer, cleared with cargo.
1881	1,086	85	6,846,854 58	199	
American vessels	727	85	4,364,065 77	132	Of which 15 were cattle steamers, cleared without cargo.
Foreign vessels	359		2,482,788 81	67	Of which 10 were steamers, cleared with cargo.
1882 (to September 1)	1,264	80	8,409,507 69	191	Up to September 1.
American vessels	936	50	3,900,595 96	113	Of which 13 were cattle steamers, cleared without cargo.
Foreign vessels	328	30	4,508,911 73	78	Of which 23 were steamers, cleared with cargo.

AMERICAN VS. BRITISH TONNAGE.

The merchants of Sagua prefer to have American sailing vessels load for them rather than those of any other nationality; because, in the first place, the insurance is less; and, in the second place, better care is taken by the masters in storing and looking after the cargoes. Nine out of ten of the American masters own shares in the vessels they command; hence it is to their personal interest to deliver a cargo in the best possible condition. I have observed, in more than one instance during the past season, that an American vessel could secure 25 cents per hogshead over the current rates paid to foreign crafts; and this goes to prove that, if we could obtain American tonnage, merchants would invariably give our vessels the preference.

As about two-fifths of all the tonnage used in this port are brought from Havana, Matanzas, and Cardenas, I regard Sagua as the best port in the island of Cuba as a port of call for vessels seeking freight. We are always in need of tonnage, and during the season a vessel is never obliged to change port in order to obtain cargo.

DISCRIMINATION AGAINST AMERICAN SHIPPING.

In my judgment it would be an act of wisdom in our law-makers should they abolish all consular fees now paid by American vessels, excepting those for noting and extending protests; and it would also be well to annul the law allowing three months' extra pay when a seaman is left in the hospital. The other section relating to the three months' extra wages is a just and equitable statute, and should continue in force. To abolish that would entail endless annoyance and trouble to consular officers without benefiting any one, helping not even the complaining shipmasters. Another relief would be to allow everything which enters into the construction of vessels to pass free of duty, and to permit, under proper restrictions, the withdrawing from bond of whatever is used on our vessels.

An additional disadvantage under which American vessels labor when brought in competition with British vessels comes from our method of taking tonnage measurement. I will give, as example, two British steamers which loaded in Sagua this year: the British steamer Clandon, gross tons 1,971, net tons 1,286; and the British steamer Leina, gross tons 1,732, net tons 1,141. These paid tonnage dues on their *net* measurement. Had they been American steamers (and up to July 1, 1882, no deductions were made for even coal space) dues would have been collected on the *gross* tonnage. The difference in these charges at $1 per ton is considerable, and the British steamers thus secure over ours an advantage of about 50 cents per hogshead on their cargoes. Again, British vessels are measured with deductions which are not allowed to American vessels. I have compared two British with two American sailing vessels of about the same tonnage, to show the carrying capacity of each, the four vessels recorded on my books, and all loading in Sagua this year and clearing for the United States: British, Bessie Simpson, 413 tons, took 700 hogsheads sugar; British, Saga, 442 tons, took 720 hogsheads sugar; American, J. R. Soper, 417 tons, took 539 hogsheads sugar; American, Dida E. Clark, 502 tons, took 736 hogsheads sugar. Why should we so calmly look upon motherly Great Britain as she reaches hither interested hands, and, through

the genius of commerce, takes to herself this "Pearl of the Antilles," a gem which nature has laid at our very feet?

CLARENCE C. FORD,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Sagua La Grande, November 1, 1882.

TRADE BETWEEN ALGERIA AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL ALEXANDER JOURDAN.

I have the honor to inclose herewith the annual return of imports, exports, and navigation between the consular district of Algiers (Africa), including agencies, and the United States, for the calendar year ending June 30, 1882.

Statement No. 1 shows the direct imports from the United States to Algeria, and does not include those introduced by the way of Havre, Marseilles, and other ports, which represent a much larger amount and consist of petroleum, hardware, agricultural implements, machinery, provisions, and many other articles. While the direct imports amount to $232,317, the general trade of imports exhibits a total of $811,825. I have been unable to obtain from the director of customs at Algiers a detailed list of all American products introduced into this colony, but I expect that the statistics will contain next year a full report in accordance with my special request.

Statement No. 2 gives the quantity and value of the declared exports for the same period, amounting to $336,860. There has been a decrease in the shipments of iron ore compared with last year. From the small table annexed to those statements, comparing the general statistics of imports and exports between this country and the United States for the last three years, we find a gradual increase, which I hope will continue.

Statement No. 3 shows the navigation at the principal ports of Algeria with the United States; 51 steamers of 75,359 tons, and 31 sailing vessels of 17,409 tons, cleared for our ports, while 2 steamers and 16 sailing vessels arrived here direct from the United States, loaded principally with petroleum and wheat.

I have already referred to the increased trade of this country growing out of the progress of agriculture and the opening of new railroads. The population, which consisted in 1876 of 2,867,626 inhabitants, is now 3,310,412, according to the last census, taken at the end of 1881, the troops and transient people not included in that number. It is an increase of 442,786 in five years. The city of Algiers contains 77,664 residents.

The crops of wheat, tobacco, wine, as well as other staple products, are quite satisfactory this year, and the prospect is good for the next; therefore, I calculate that the statistics of 1882 will show a considerable increase.

ALEX. JOURDAN, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Algiers, October 2, 1882.

Statement showing the direct imports and exports between the consular district of Algiers (including agencies) and the United States from the 1st of July, 1881, to June 30, 1882.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Total.
1.—DIRECT IMPORTS.			
Petroleum (direct from the United States)....cases..	153,668	$212,892	
Wheat....pounds..	485,000	39,425	
			$252,317
2.—DECLARED EXPORTS.			
Iron ore....tons..	111,706	295,546	
Vegetable hair....bales..	9,225	34,776	
Rags....do...	220	3,454	
Corkwood....do....	108	1,896	
Fancy goods	.....	809	
Marble	.....	97	
Empty barrels	.....	288	
			336,860
Total direct imports and exports	.....	.....	589,177

General trade with the United States.

Direct and indirect.	1879.	1880.	1881.
Imports	$712,472	$293,297	$811,825
Exports	425,776	540,576	559,900

No. 3.—*Statement showing the navigation at the consular district of Algiers, including agencies to and from the United States, from the 1st of July, 1881, to June 30, 1882.*

VESSELS CLEARED.

Flag.	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	49	72,823	3	1,332
French	2	2,436	1	1,054
Norwegian	.....	.....	8	3,870
Austrian	.....	.....	9	5,169
Italian	.....	.....	8	3,798
German	.....	.....	2	1,686
Total	51	75,359	31	17,409

VESSELS ENTERED.

Italian	.....	.....	11	3,827
Austrian	.....	.....	2	1,078
Norwegian	.....	.....	2	1,095
British	1	998	1	369
French	1	1,052	.....	.....
Total	2	2,050	16	6,369

AMERICAN TRADE IN VENEZUELA.

REPORT BY CONSUL BEACH, OF PUERTO CABELLO.

In an effort to obtain a clear understanding of the condition of trade in my district, and how the trade of the United States might be increased, if it were advisable and practicable under the circumstances to

increase it, I adopted the journalistic system of interviewing, and after calling upon representative firms, both jobbing and retail, the following is presented as embodying the most essential part of the information and suggestions received.

PROVISIONS.

The merchants classed as "provision dealers" import from the United States in considerable quantities flour, lard, hams, pork, salt beef, kerosene, rope, butter, crackers, pilot bread, and brooms. In small quantities there are imported canned goods, dried fruit, green apples, potatoes, and onions. No fault is found with the manner of putting up any of the goods, except some of the hams and butter, which have not been well preserved, and which causes them to rank in market as second-rate. United States cheese has been nearly excluded from market, because not possessing the requisite keeping qualities. Good goods are discredited because some have been poor. None but the best quality of hams and butter should be sent, so that the goods may properly take their just rank of first-class. Canned goods and dried fruit are not imported to any considerable extent, because the domestic market is well supplied at all seasons of the year with fresh fruits and vegetables. Beans and corn, and the products from corn, are produced in ample market supply. The interior is beginning to produce its supply of lard. Rice is produced to some extent in the country, and the balance used is obtained from the East Indies, because obtained from there cheapest.

DRUGS AND MEDICINES.

The goods imported from the United States are, patent medicines, spirits turpentine, tar, rosin, varnish, hops, and fancy glass bottles. General drugs are said to be about 10 per cent. cheaper in Germany than in the United States. The transportation and other expenses in getting drugs from the United States is 24 per cent., and from Germany 14 per cent. The terms of sale in both countries is six months' credit; in Germany, after six months, 5 per cent. interest; in the United States, 12 per cent. interest. The difference in freight, and the greater rate of special interest, militates against the trade of the United States. The goods received from the United States are put up satisfactorily, except that sufficient care is not taken in putting up the glass bottles. Those brought from Europe are put up in packages of one dozen, and then the packages are well packed in boxes of convenient size.

PAINTS AND OILS.

In proportion to the number of buildings, paints and the materials composing them are used very restrictedly. Many of the buildings, when improved at all exteriorly, are improved by the application of a coat of white-wash, or a colored wash of similar composition. A poor quality of paint and oil is imported from Germany, the paint, with all expenses paid, costing 14 cents per pound, while a good article imported from the United States would cost about 24 cents.

HARDWARE, GLASSWARE, WOODENWARE, CLOCKS, ETC.

The dealers in hardware, glassware, crockery, and woodenware import from the United States watches, clocks, axes, picks, hoes, glassware, scales, plated ware, gold-pens, and ink. The shovels made in the United States are too good and too expensive. Many chairs and hat-stands are imported. The lamps, cutlery, and crockery are imported

from Europe, because of lower price there. The freights and commissions are less on goods from the United States than from Europe. The goods received from the United States were generally better finished, are giving excellent satisfaction, and the demand for them will be increased. Many articles of hardware produced in the United States would be extensively sold if so introduced as to be well known. The trade in farm implements and manufacturing machinery is very restricted, and must thus continue until the spirit of progress is developed.

DRY GOODS.

The white drills, colored drills, and all kinds of domestics imported from the United States give satisfaction. One dealer very frankly remarked that if the manufacturers would leave off their brands, or brand goods to suit their customers, as the English did, they could make better profits, showing that the Yankees have yet to learn English tricks. Making goods of standard quality, and branding them so that the quality can be known, is certainly an obstacle to a trade contingent on any kind of misrepresentation.

The prints made in the United States are too good in quality and lack the requisite brightness of color. The native women, whose trade comprises full nine-tenths in the dry goods line, buy prints bright in colors of purple, red, yellow, blue, and green—the brighter the more satisfactory. An extensive jobber remarked that if the United States manufacturers would make a class of poor, low-priced goods, with very bright colors, they could get the print-goods trade. At present the United States prints were too good, too high-priced, and colors too dull for the Venezuelan market. Another jobber remarked that, as the people were accustomed to buying the English prints from 28 to 31 inches in width, that the chances of selling the United States prints would be increased if they were made of like width, now being from 24 to 25 inches. As there is a growing demand for a good quality of goods, the trade with the United States is increasing. The jobbers disagreed as to the respective cost of getting goods (transportation, commissions, &c.) from Europe and the United States. The United States are favored by quicker transit, and, all things considered, there is not much difference.

SUNDRIES.

Tobacco is grown in the interior, but not in sufficient quantity to supply the market. Considerable is imported from the United States, and gives good satisfaction. Cigars and cigarettes are made in Venezuela sufficient to meet the demand.

Lumber, candles, and soap are excluded by a tariff so high as to be prohibitory. Saw-logs, on which no duty is charged, are brought in to fill the demand for boxes. The demand for United States musical instruments and billiard tables is increasing. Both are used extensively, the latter far more numerously in proportion to the population than in the United States.

GENERAL COMMENTS ON TRADE.

There are no prejudices against the United States, and the merchants of this portion of Venezuela will buy all such goods there as they believe will be to their pecuniary advantage.

The exportation of Venezuelan products—to the United States or Europe, as the prices in the one or the other renders it the most profit-

able—has no mentionable influence upon the trade given to the United States. The exporters sell in the highest market, and the importers buy in the cheapest.

Business is very greatly depressed in Venezuela by reason of the long-continued low price of coffee, its chief article of export and principal source of income. There have been several failures of large mercantile concerns, and a few more may follow; but the heavy trade now is mostly in the hands of men of capital and good repute. The Venezuelan laws for the collection of debts are excellent in the books, but are nearly if not quite valueless in enforcement against persons indisposed to pay. The financial condition is such as not to warrant an increase of business, unless it should come as a result of merchandise of the United States to some extent supplanting that of other countries.

The trade of the United States might be materially increased through such an introduction of new articles, and improved old ones, as would make their merits known to the people. The best method of introduction is largely a matter of theory, and the consular reports show the wide extent to which the theorizing has been carried. Doubtless different methods would be practicable at places differently circumstanced, and in this view each theory may possess some measure of excellence. My theory is that all consuls should receive, under the responsibility of their official bonds, samples of goods for introduction, for the disposal of which they should be paid a fair compensation, the compensation to be fixed by the government, or left to a mutual agreement between the party owning the goods and the consuls. The fact that most of the salaried consuls are prohibited from doing business does not appear to be very generally known. Sending out good agents with samples is an efficient method of introducing goods; but is often so expensive as to be discouraging to merchants and manufacturers. Advertising in trade journals has its advantages, and whether in the language of the country to which they are sent or not, as in the large foreign mercantile houses there are always persons who can read English, making the advertisements available. All trade journals and kindred methods of advertising that have come to this consulate have been left in those places where the leading business men most resort.

The wholesale trade in this district is represented by five dry-goods houses in Puerto Cabello and five at Valencia. Provisions, by five houses at Puerto Cabello, and six at Valencia. Hardware and crockery, by two houses at Puerto Cabello, and five at Valencia. Drugs and medicines, by two houses at Puerto Cabello and two at Valencia. Furniture, jewelry, hats, and some other goods previously named, are imported in connection with other merchandise. The trade at Tucacas, San Felipe, and the city and mountain section of Barquisimeto is supplied from Puerto Cabello by the way of a steamboat as far as Tucacas.

HORATIO N. BEACH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Puerto Cabello, November 10, 1882.

EXPORTS FROM PUERTO CABELLO.

REPORT BY CONSUL BEACH.

The following tables show the chief articles exported from Puerto Cabello between July 1, 1880, and November 1, 1882, their quantities and destination. The quantities are given in kilograms, 46 of which are equivalent to 100 pounds.

From July 1, 1880, *to June* 30, 1881.

Destination.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Hides.	Goat-skins.	Deer-skins.	Bark.	Woods.	In-digo.	Cotton.
	Kilos.	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*
Germany	7,326,815	43,063	217,903	308	1,656	65,255	546,482	1,352	22,265
France	2,367,500	282,518	.....	.....	.....	37,855	44,992	6,180	.....
England	138,376	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
United States	5,639,059	.....	20,798	80,397	44,384	2,466	.....	1,109	.....
Spain	.....	58,224	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Holland	7,611	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	15,479,361	383,805	238,701	80,705	46,040	105,576	591,474	8,641	22,265

From July 1, 1881, *to June* 30, 1882.

Destination.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Hides.	Deer-skins.	Goat-skins.	Woods.	In-digo.	Bark.	Cotton.	Divi-divi.
	Kilos.	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*
Germany	5,800,363	176,858	150,023	10,042	8,000	896,450	9,945	11,693	168,833	31,876
France	2,537,540	179,403	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,075	377	.....	.....
United States	5,073,719	13,169	98,575	22,480	24,253	150,749	2,464	.....	.....	.....
England	340,303	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,704	.....
Spain	12,000	26,454	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Holland	7,108	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	13,771,032	395,881	648,598	33,522	32,253	1,046,199	20,084	12,170	280,537	31,876

From July 1, *to November* 1, 1882.

Destination.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Hides.	Deer-skins.	Goat-skins.	Bark.
	Kilos.	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*
Europe	234,787	109,654	2,658	8,968	195	19,309
United States	806,030	2,266	99,785	5,596	5,835	.....
Antilles	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	2,040,817	111,920	102,443	14,564	6,030	19,306

HORATIO N. BEACH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Puerto Cabello, Venezuela, November 10, 1882.

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AMERICAN TRADE WITH PIEDRAS NEGRAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL SCHUCHARDT.

I have the honor to submit to the Department the following report on trade and commerce in this district: Since my last report on the same subject, trade, import as well as export, has decreased considerably; a part of this year, ending September 30, quite a stagnation has taken place.

In my last report I stated the amount of goods imported from the United States as $256,697.

This statement was based partly on extracts from the records of the custom-house at Eagle Pass, Texas, showing only the declared exports from that place into Mexico, and partly on the information gathered from the merchants of Eagle Pass, Texas, as to their sales of goods for Mexico.

For the purpose of obtaining the amount of goods to this district from the United States the records in the custom-house of Piedras Negras might prove rather inexact. In the year ending September 30, 1881, 1,531 bales of raw cotton, raised in Western Texas, had been imported at this place, while in the same period of this year not one bale has been imported, and the general complaints of the merchants at Eagle Pass about dull sales show that there must be a considerable decrease in commercial transactions of this year against those of last year.

The former customers from the interior of Mexico, and even from this vicinity, of the merchants of Eagle Pass, Texas, make at present their purchases of goods and sales of products at Laredo. The cause of this is that Laredo is now connected with the markets in the United States by two lines of railroad, thus offering advantages to business men which this place cannot afford.

The declared value of exports from this district to the United States during the four quarters ending September 30, 1882, amounted to $117,116.31 against $140,345.90 in the preceding year, showing a decrease of $23,229.59 in the present year.

The principal decrease in the value of declared exports has been in the last two quarters of this year. For the quarter ending December 31, 1881, it amounted to $42,500.67; and that in the quarter ending March 31, 1882, to $43,747.46; while the value of declared exports in the quarter ending June 30, 1882, amounted only to $18,282.93; and that of the quarter ending September 30, 1882, to only $12,585.25. The causes of this decrease in the exports from this district to the United States are various. The demands for produce in former times by the population between the Nueces River and the Rio Grande, mostly sheep-raisers, were supplied from this district, but now a railroad from San Antonio, Texas, being completed nearly to Eagle Pass, that population does not depend any longer on Mexico for its supplies of grain, &c., but receive them from the opposite direction, *i. e.*, from Texas and other Western States of the Union.

There is yet a great demand in Texas for cattle, mares, and horses from Mexico, but the export of these has diminished lately very much, on account of very high municipal export duties being levied on them.

MEXICAN EXPORT DUTIES ON LIVE ANIMALS.

The present tariff of exports duties on cattle and horses is as follows:

	Tariff.	Add federal, 25 per cent.	Add municipal, 12½ per cent.	Total.
Each bull	$0 25	$0 06¼	$0 03⅛	$0 34⅜
Each horse	50	12½	06¼	68¾
Each mare	3 00	75	37½	4 12½
Female cattle, each	3 00	75	37½	4 12½

Besides, an inspection fee of 6 cents per head is exacted.

Article 112 of the federal constitution of Mexico prohibits the States from imposing import or export duties, notwithstanding which 25 per cent. of the amount of these export duties is collected for the federal government, as will be seen by the above table. This high tariff, particularly on cows and mares, was created for the purpose of stimulating and increasing cattle and horse raising in this State, and therefore only should apply to animals bought in this State, but the probability is not excluded that the export duties are also exacted on animals bought in another State, touching only this port for exportation to the United States, whenever an exigency on the part of the municipal treasury requires it.

The above tariff is presented for information to those interested in the purchase of animals in this State (Coahuila) for export to the United States, but it may be increased whenever an exigency in the municipal treasury requires it, and as this very often happens, persons intending to buy cattle or horses in Mexico for export at Piedras Negras should not depend in making their calculations on the tariff shown to them before they have bought stock. These exactions and difficulties never existed in Laredo, in the State of Tamaulipas, and the natural consequence is that that port has attracted the greater part of the export trade on this frontier.

WOOL EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The wool formerly produced in this district was not of large quantity, was of the lowest grade, and valued at from 8 to 10 cents per pound, and the import duties in the United States being not more than 3 cents per pound on that kind of wool, it was paying to export it to the United States.

For the last two years the amount of wool raised in this district has largely increased and the quality much improved, but as the import duty in the United States on graded wool is proportionately much higher than on the common Mexican wool, it does not pay any longer to export wool raised in this district to the United States, but it is now shipped with advantage to the interior of Mexico, where it finds a ready sale.

SHEEP-RAISING.

In former years a considerable number of common Mexican ewes were annually exported through this port to the United States by the sheep-raisers of Western Texas. At present large flocks of the off-

spring of these ewes, improved by merino bucks, continually are imported at this place from Western Texas. The country between the Nueces River and the Rio Grande, becoming settled very fast by sheep-raisers, quite a number of them lately arrived here in search of pasture-grounds, and should Mexican land-owners agree to sell some of their extensive lands, of little use to them at present, and the Mexican authorities and people meet these newcomers with good will, this district in not a very remote future may become one of the largest wool producing districts of Mexico.

RAILROADS.

By the first of December the International and Interoceanic Construction Company will commence to work on their line from this port to the city of Mexico, and in a few days a tap-road connecting the above line with the Mexican Pacific extension line will be completed to Eagle Pass, Texas.

As soon as the connection of this part of Mexico with the markets of the United States is accomplished, trade and commerce in and through this district not only will revive, but, without doubt, will largely increase.

WM. SCHUCHARDT,
Vice-Consul.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
Piedras Negras, Mexico, October 30, 1882.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH LIBERIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL SMYTH.

I have the honor to report that on my arrival here I found several unanswered communications from American manufacturers and merchants, in which inquiries were made as to the kind and quality of American manufactured articles that were specially and generally needed for the Liberian trade. I now address myself to the matter of submitting to the Department a carefully prepared detailed list of the staple articles of trade required for this market, and also a statement of the exportable products of Liberia. I have placed tobacco foremost on account of its universal use, and because the native races are very fastidious as to its quality, color, length, and weight of heads; and for the further reason that our tobacco commands the entire West African and Soudan markets wherever the West African trader has made interior ventures. It commands a good price, steady sale and is less subject to fluctuation in price than any other foreign product.

Attention is also invited to cotton goods mentioned, and I beg to say in this connection that white and unbleaqhed cottons and prints should be in pieces of 12, 15, and 20 yards.

Kerosene, salt provisions, beef, pork, and fish and flour should be of good quality.

As to Liberian and West African exportable produce, the list subjoined is small, but the productions named are staple.

In the matter of return cargoes lies the difficulty with the United States in taking a competitive rank with England, France, Germany, and Holland in this trade. All that our ships bring to Africa finds ready sale, but the return products seem to be unsuited to our market.

Palm oil and kernels, the product of the most valued and prolific tree in West Africa, seems incapable of utilization among us. Europe uses the oil and kernels for lubrication, domesticity, and for the making of oils for the toilet. American tact should find a place for palm oil and kernels.

I would respectfully suggest the establishment of a wholesale emporium on the West Coast for the sale of tobacco, cotton goods, kerosene, and provisions.

JNO. H. SMYTH,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Monrovia, Liberia, October 16, 1882.

American goods required in the Liberian trade.

Leaf-tobacco, dark brown, long leaves, weight about 5 heads to the pound, no heavier.
Flour in barrels and half barrels, good quality.
Mackerel in barrels and half barrels, large No. 3's.
Alewives in barrels and half barrels.
Pork, prime mess, in barrels and half barrels.
Beef in barrels and half barrels, family and common trade.
Smoked shoulder in tierces of about 300 pounds each.
Bacon sides in small packages of 200 or 300 pounds.
Lard in tins of 5 and 10 pounds.
Pilot bread.
Hake in drums of 100 to 150 pounds each.
White beans in half barrels.
Brooms.
Crushed sugar in half barrels.
Cheese in 11 or 12 pound boxes.
Radiant oil (kerosene) in 5 gallon tins, and 2 tins to the case.
Boat-oars, 14, 15, and 16 feet each.
Brass kettles, size 10, 12, 14, and 17 inches.
Rigging tar and pitch.
Soap in 10 and 14 pound boxes.
Trunks in nests.
Cut nails, size 4, 6, 8, and 10 pennies.
Shoes, male and female, good quality.
Prints, dark and light ground.
Pine boards, spruce and yellow pine, 1, 1¼, and 2 inches in thickness.
Florida water.
Tubs and pails.
White or bleached shirtings.
Brown cotton.
Ginghams and checks.
Starks' blue drill.
Saponifier.
Manila rope, 1½, 2, 2½, and 3 inches.
Canned goods, strawberries, peaches, pears, mutton, beef, &c.
Kerosene lamps, small hand lamps and chimneys.
Axes with helves.
Hatchets, bench and shingling.
Common furniture, such as chairs, bedsteads, settees.
Counter scales.
Gents' hats, felt and straw.
American banded muskets, flint locks.
Powder in 5 pound kegs.

EXPORTABLE PRODUCE.

Palm oil.
Palm kernels.
Camwood.
Coffee.
Rubber.
Ivory.
Ginger.

PETROLEUM REGULATIONS AT CALCUTTA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL MATTSON.

I have the honor to transmit herewith two copies of notification issued by the lieutenant-governor of Bengal, containing rules to regulate the importation of petroleum at the port of Calcutta, and at other ports in the presidency of Bengal.

A. MATTSON,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL, UNITED STATES,
Calcutta, October 16, 1882.

NOTIFICATION.

The 18th July, 1882.—In exercise of the powers conferred by section 7 of the petroleum act, 1881, the lieutenant-governor of Bengal is pleased, with the previous sanction of the governor-general in council, to make the following rules to regulate the importation of petroleum:

PRELIMINARY.

1. (1) All words and expressions used in these rules and defined in the act shall in these rules have the meanings respectively assigned to them by the act.

(2) In these rules—

"Petroleum declared dangerous" means petroleum which the master of a ship has declared under rule 2 to be dangerous petroleum.

"Certificated petroleum" means petroleum covered by a certificate granted at the port of shipment, of such description as the local government may, from time to time, by written order, prescribe, and to the effect that the petroleum is not dangerous petroleum.

"Uncertificated petroleum" means petroleum which the master of the ship has not declared under rule 2 to be dangerous petroleum, and which is not covered by a certificate as aforesaid.

"Petroleum reported dangerous" means petroleum stated in a report signed by the chemical examiner to government, and deposited in the office of the port commissioners, to be dangerous petroleum.

"Petroleum reported not dangerous" means petroleum stated in a report as aforesaid not to be dangerous petroleum.

IMPORTATION AT CALCUTTA.

2. The master of every ship bound for Calcutta and carrying petroleum shall, before reaching Budge-Budge, declare in writing to the pilot*—

(*a*) What quantity of petroleum the ship is carrying;

(*b*) Whether any, and if so, what part of it is dangerous petroleum; and

(*c*) Whether any, and if so, what part of it is certificated petroleum.

Where the master declares that any petroleum is certificated petroleum, he shall produce to the pilot the certificates covering the same.

3. A ship having on board any petroleum declared dangerous shall not proceed upwards beyond Budge-Budge until that petroleum has been discharged.

4. A ship having on board any uncertificated petroleum shall not proceed upwards beyond Budge-Budge until that petroleum has been either discharged or reported not dangerous.

5. A ship having on board only certificated petroleum or petroleum reported not dangerous, or both, may proceed upwards as far as Mutteea Brooj Ghât, but shall not proceed further until that petroleum has been discharged, unless the quantity of the petroleum does not exceed 500 gallons, in which case she may proceed to any mooring in the port.

*The pilot should deliver this declaration to the harbor master or his assistant when the latter comes on board.

6. (1) When a ship is stopped at Budge-Budge under rule 4, or at Mutteea Brooj Ghât under rule 5, the superintendent of river police, or one of his assistants, shall, as soon as possible, go on board and obtain samples, in the former case of all the uncertificated petroleum, and if there is certificated petroleum on board which, together with the uncertificated petroleum, amounts to more than 500 gallons of that certificated petroleum; in the latter case, of all the petroleum on board which has not been reported not dangerous.

(2) The master shall give to the superintendent or his assistant a sample of every variety of petroleum comprised in the petroleum of which samples are to be taken under clause (1), and shall, if the superintendent or his assistant so require, take those samples from the particular receptacles indicated by him.

(3) The superintendent or his assistant shall forthwith seal the receptacles containing the samples, and having labeled them with the name of the ship, the name of the consignee, and such other distinguishing marks as may be necessary, shall forward them to the chemical examiner for report; and the chemical examiner, having tested them, shall sign a report declaring that they are or are not dangerous petroleum (as the case may be), and forward that report to the office of the port commissioners, where it shall be deposited.

7. If the petroleum declared or reported dangerous, or both together, on board a ship exceed 40 gallons, no portion of that petroleum shall be landed unless the whole of it is covered by an import license granted under section 4 of the act.

8. If the uncertificated petroleum on board a ship exceeds 40 gallons, no portion of it shall be landed until the chemical examiner's report in respect of it has been deposited in the office of the port commissioners as hereinbefore provided.

9. If there is on board a ship uncertificated petroleum in respect of which the chemical examiner's report has not been deposited as hereinbefore provided, and also petroleum declared or reported dangerous, and the aggregate exceeds 40 gallons, no portion thereof shall be landed unless the aggregate is covered by an import license granted under section 4 of the act.

10. If the certificated petroleum on board a ship exceeds 500 gallons, no portion of that petroleum shall be landed unless it is reported not dangerous.

11. When petroleum is landed within the port—

(1) It shall be landed only in covered cargo-boats, and after sunrise and before sunset.

(2) If landed on the Calcutta bank of the river, it may be landed at Memuck Mahal Ghât, or at any ghât or landing stage lower down the river.

(3) If landed on the Howrah bank of the river, it may be landed at the ghât immediately to the east of the Royal Botanical Gardens.

(4) It shall not, without the written permission of the port commissioners, be landed at any other ghât than those named above.

(5) No smoking, fire, or light of any description shall be allowed in any cargo-boat during the time that the petroleum is on board the boat.

12. All petroleum landed at the ghât on the Howrah bank of the river, mentioned in Rule 11, shall be carried at once from the boat in which the petroleum has been conveyed to the ghât (without being deposited or stacked on the ground) to the north side of the gate leading into the Royal Botanical Gardens, and shall not be deposited or stacked within 50 yards to the north of a line drawn through the pillars of that gate.

13. When the petroleum declared or reported dangerous, or both, on board a ship amounts to more than 40 gallons, and is not covered by an import license granted under section 4 of the act, and the master desires to proceed above Budge-Budge, the local government may, if it thinks fit, grant to any person a license to possess that petroleum at such place for such time and subject to such undertaking by such person for the re-exportation of that petroleum at the expiration of that time as it thinks fit, and may, notwithstanding anything hereinbefore contained, permit that petroleum to be landed and delivered to that person in such manner and subject to such conditions as it thinks fit.

IMPORTATION AT OTHER PORTS.

14. The master of every ship conveying petroleum shall, on entering a port in the lower provinces of Bengal other than the port of Calcutta give intimation of the quantity and description of the petroleum to the magistrate of the district, and shall not allow more than three gallons of dangerous petroleum to be removed from the ship for delivery to any one person, except upon the production by the consignee or his agent of a license under section 4 or section 5 of the act (as the case may be) to possess the same.

GENERAL.

15. Nothing in the foregoing rules applies to petroleum comprised in a ship's stores and manifested as such, provided it is not of unreasonably large amount. If any

question arises as to whether any petroleum manifested as ship's stores is of an unreasonably large amount, the decision thereon of the port commissioners in Calcutta and of the magistrate of the district elsewhere shall be final.

COLMAN MACAULAY,
Secretary to the Government of Bengal.

[Dated Yacht Rhotas, the 18th August, 1882.]

Notification by the government of Bengal, medical and municipal department.

Under clause (2), Rule I of the rules under the petroleum act, 1881, published under notification dated the 18th July, 1882, at pages 617-18, Part I of the Calcutta Gazette of the 19th idem, it is hereby notified for general information that until further notice petroleum certificates granted at the port of shipment, in the form employed by the inspectors of the New York Produce Exchange, will be accepted for the purposes of the said rules.

THE AFRICAN KINGDOM OF ABEOKUTA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL SMYTH, OF MONROVIA.

I endeavored in a former report to impress the government with "the importance of the commerce of Lagas, Bonny, Gaboon, and Wydah, and the necessity which exists for consular representatives at these posts." In that report I incidentally alluded to the fact that the people of Abeokuta had but "recently declared themselves a nation, and adopted an ensign." I am now in possession of information with respect to that people and government which may be interesting as a matter of history, as indicating the advance made in two years by the "United Kingdoms of Egba, Alake, Olowu, Osile, and Agura," in a knowledge of government, and in conforming to the canons of Christian civilization. These governments, which make one United State, through the educational advantages of Mr. George W. Johnson, the secretary of state, present in the proclamation inclosed unmistakable evidence that the representatives of the people in Abbeokuta appreciate the necessities of government, and understand the means to be put forth to possess themselves of them. They legislate upon the imposition of duties, since in all civilized governments it has been long since realized that a public revenue is the life-blood of political existence.

I inclose the correspondence between Mr. C. T. O. King, agent of the American Colonization Society, and myself, numbered 1 and 2 severally, the former of which fully explains the inclosed copy of the proclamation (A). Mr. King is an Egba gentleman, born in Sierra Leone, and fourteen years a resident citizen of Liberia.

Without further discussion of the proclamation, I desire to again respectfully call attention to the fact that I am advised that the British are making strenuous efforts to open up trade relations with Abbeokuta, which, under the present civilized confederation, has a population of one hundred and fifty thousand people under its control. The Abeokutans are said to look with suspicion upon all European approaches, commercial or political, dreading that territorial acquisition would be the final result.

The commerce of Lagos is yearly increasing in importance in consequence of the growing civilization of Abeokuta and its influence upon the interior contiguous.

Our country might exercise a happy influence upon the rapidly advancing negro State of Abeokuta; our revenue might be increased by direct commercial relations with this State, which is so happily influencing a portion of the Soudan.

The reorganization of our consular corps in West Africa by the appointment of educated native gentlemen to such posts as are and would be in the beginning sustained by fees, would be an anticipation of the future commercial importance of Africa, in which we would secure, by this means, no inconsiderable part, and would be a display of tact in African affairs that has not been heretofore shown.

A supervisory officer, as consul-general for the West Coast and the Niger, could, in my opinion, so direct matters consular as to make an important opening for American commerce in Africa.

JOHN H. SMYTH,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Monrovia, Liberia.

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1. *Mr. King to Consul-General Smyth.*

In my last interview I gave you my views in regard to the Egba confederacy; I mean the independent negro government that has recently been inaugurated at Abeokuta, my fatherland, under the direction of George W. Johnson, esq., a patriotic son of the soil. Mr. Johnson is a native of Sierra Leone, of the Egba tribe, of whose life and career I spoke to you some time ago; has not had the advantage of a high education; he has only acquired and attained elementary book learning like myself, which he has however turned to valuable account in the building up of a civilized, strong, and permanent government in our fatherland.

This mail brought me a copy of a proclamation which has been lately issued by His Majesty Alake Oyekon, King of Abeokuta, through his secretary, Mr. Johnson, regulating the custom tariffs on certain indigenous articles exported out of the country. The spirit of this document is to create a revenue for sustaining government. It will be seen that no duty has been assessed on imports except liquors. I herewith forward to you a printed copy of that document for your perusal, knowing the interest you have always taken in any measure calculated to promote the cause of the negro race generally.

As some of the words in the proclamation are foreign and have the significance of the language in which this document was originally written, it might be necessary for me to give you some explanation regarding them. The word Abeokuta means *under stone*, or rock. The word itself is of such expressive detail as connected with the history of the nation that I cannot now enumerate circumstances, but simply give the origin and definition of the word. It is an aggregation of tribes, all of the same powerful family similar to the German combination, and were blended into oneness and nationality by the ability of the great statesman and warrior Lishabbe, who was afterwards succeeded by another giant general, named Shodekkeh, so that the Alake, Olowu, Osile, and Agura have been blended into one kingdom styled the "Egba United Kingdom."

Mr. Johnson, as was mentioned, is not a formally educated man, but he has the instincts of the race strongly developed in him, and knows how to guide his country to prosperity. Nature has stamped the man like to what she has done to similar individuals—bound to lead their nation to greatness, and that despite of the want of great culture in books. Touissant L'Overture and Oliver Cromwell are examples of these characters. Mr. Johnson has the instinctive sense of an independent negro government, and that it should be strong and self-sustaining. He occupies at the same time the position of secretary of state (amono oba) which, being literally translated, means one who knows the king's conscience. The English have it the keeper of the king's conscience. He also holds the post of the collector of customs, and, as you will see, the duties are collected in cowries, the current money of accounts of the country. From time immemorial has this kind of money of account been used among African tribes, and is the expression of bargains, payments, exchange.

As all civilized nations collect their duties in money made current for such purpose by their laws, so this nation has very properly assessed their duties in cowries which have been recognized among the most ancient African nations in the light of money, or the general expression of exchange; but it will doubtlessly be altered by and by into the more substantial material of gold, a substance in respect to the abundance of which there is no lack in Africa.

"Africa shall rise," is the motto adopted. I would say in regard to this motto that it has a futurity about it which really need not be used. Africa has never really been

down. The coast tribes may have suffered degradation, but Africa proper has suffered very little deterioration. A nation having 250,000,000 of souls may be forced to spare from the coast a few millions to be degraded by some other nations, but the nation itself interiorly has not gone down. In consequence of this sad circumstance, Africa has outlived the very same misfortune amid which another race went down, and the very same circumstances that destroyed the Indian in his own land, we survive, though double oppression was added. The nation has an indestructible vitality, not to be annihilated by time or by circumstances, by things present or things to come. As for the past, that billow has rolled over us and we are unharmed comparatively.

Africa has stood the world's usage, when that usage was at its worst. There is nothing now to be feared when it is acknowledged on all sides that the world is growing better.

The whole world believes we are somebody, notwithstanding Victor Hugo's advice to Europe to go in and take Africa as there was nobody there. The whole world believes that we are somebody, but they seem to wish to put it off, or they keep trying to do so. And we too have learned to speak in the same manner ourselves—hence the motto, "Africa shall rise." This is owing to our being brought up in their schools, and having imbibed many of their ideas and ways of thinking. So hurtful a thing it is to have been brought up in Egypt. A cursed circumstance (as we have read over and over) in the Israelitish history, so that that nation was never able to rid itself of the fatal effects of it—and indeed disgraced and ruined—brought the curse of Providence down on them, so that they were finally dispersed, and they have not been able to gather themselves together even unto this day, as to be able to say that both land and people are an acknowledged fact.

Our motto in Africa should be "Africa forever"; that Africa *will* stand at the last day, as when in the first days, the beginning of her kingdoms, Babel and Erech, and Accad and Calneh, in the land of Shinar.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

C. P. O. KING,
Agent American Colonization Society.

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2. *Consul-General Smyth to Mr. King.*

SIR: Your letter of November 28, 1881, with inclosure of a copy of "a proclamation, lately issued by His Majesty Alake Oyekon, King of Abeokuta, through his secretary, Mr. Johnson, regulating the custom tariffs on certain indigenous articles exported out of the country," has been received, and I hasten to acknowledge the fact, and to express my thanks to you for the valuable information contained in the proclamation, as well as the explanation you are pleased to furnish in your letter. In the year 1879, I had occasion, when discussing the subject of a reorganization of the United States consular corps in West Africa, with the Secretary of State of the United States, to advise him of the establishment of civilized government by "downright negroes," our kith and kin in race, at Abeokuta.

The proclamation you have forwarded is a fit complement to the promise given in 1879 of good, substantial, Christian government in Abeokuta. You need make no apology for your countryman, fellow-tribesman, Mr. Johnson. The proclamation shows him to be a man of sterling sense, a statesman of no ordinary ability, and what is of equal merit, a loyal negro to his race, and as an Abeokutan, a patriot. I cannot as fully express my admiration of this gentleman as it exists in me. That God should give us such men wherever a remnant of the negro race is and especially in the fatherland, is my earnest desire, and strengthens and confirms my confidence in the prophecy that Ethiopia shall suddenly stretch forth her hand to Him. You are pleased to say, in compliment to me no doubt, that "knowing the interest you have always taken in any measure calculated to promote the cause of the negro race generally," you send me the inclosed proclamation. I thank you for this kind allusion to a sentiment so dear to me and to my acts. If I have at any time in my official or private life given any marked evidence of devotion to the interests of the negro race, I am conscious that I deserve no special credit for it. I could not without outraging my nature, and doing violence to my sense of consistency, feel and be other to my race.

Under the inspiration of a devoted mother, guided by her to my majority, I have ever felt a pride in the race of which, in the providence of God, I am a part, although I was in great ignorance of the truth concerning my race until elevated to the distinguished position which brought me to the natural home of my people. Be assured, sir, that I shall take very great pleasure in transmitting to my government the copy of the proclamation, with your most interesting and able letter of explanation, in which you so fully illustrate in your language my sentiments as to our common race

and dear fatherland, which cannot but be of interest to my government, which I am pleased to know and be able to assert, has shown more than ordinary interest in its negro citizens in Liberia, and which is not indifferent to Africa's future.

JOHN H. SMYTH,
Consul-General.

A PROCLAMATION.

"AFRICA SHALL RISE."

REORGANIZATION OF THE EGBA GOVERNMENT.

In the sixteenth year of the establishment of the Egba United Board of Management, and in the third year of the reign of His Majesty King ALAKE OYEKON, in and over the kingdom of Abeokuta and its territories, &c., &c., &c.

In order to facilitate the progress of the Egba United Board of Management, which was established in the year 1865, by the late Shomoye Bashorun, for the civilization and improvement of this country, it is thought most necessary, by the directors of the Prince United House of Assembly, to publish for general information the fourth regulation of this government, and to enforce the same in Abeokuta and its territories now that it has received the sanction of His Majesty King Alake Oyekon.

REGULATION 4.—That the object of this government is, to raise a fund by the collection of a duty on all produce or merchandise to be exported from time to time in Abeokuta, or in any of its territories, for the purposes of supporting the Egba Government and for the better protection of the property of merchants, native traders, and others; and for the extension of Christian civilization, legitimate commerce, and in endeavoring to cultivate peace and friendship throughout the surrounding tribes.

1. That it shall be lawful for any person or persons to have free access* in Abeokuta for the purposes of trade, and to export therefrom any goods or produce passing from Abeokuta to Lagos by the river Ogun or elsewhere, subject to the regulations hereinafter mentioned.

2. That on all goods exported from Abeokuta to Lagos, by the river Ogun or elsewhere, there shall be paid the following duty, in cowries or produce, at the time of such exportation, viz:

Ivory, 3 strings cowries on every pound.
Shea butter, 1 string cowries on every pound.
Cotton, 30 cowries on every pound.
Benni seed, 3 cowries on every pound.
Palm kernels, 3 cowries on every pound.
Palm or nut oil, 2 strings cowries on every gallon.

NOTICE.—A bale or load of a carrier is to be reckoned 134 pounds a pack.

3. That all other goods not named shall be charged or chargeable with a duty of 3 per cent. on the marketable value of such goods and produce at Abeokuta at the time of such exportation.

4. That such duty shall be payable and paid at the custom-house at Abeokuta on all such goods and produce as shall be intended to be exported by the river Ogun, and that on such payment a permit for the export thereof shall be granted by the collector, deputy collector, or such other person or persons as shall be duly appointed for that purpose, and that such permit shall be sent with and accompany such goods or produce on their exportation, and shall be produced, if required, by any person or persons in charge of such goods or produce; and that the payment of the duty on goods and produce exported overland shall be payable at such place as shall be from time to time appointed.

5. That any goods or produce being exported from Abeokuta, by the river Ogun or elsewhere, for which a permit shall not, on demand, be produced to any person appointed for the examination of such permit, shall and may be seized; and on proof before the Board of Management, or any four justices of the peace appointed for that purpose, and the non-production of such permit, the goods or produce shall be declared forfeited; and on sale the proceeds of such sale shall, after deducting the necessary expenses, be paid as follows, viz: one-third thereof to the seizer and collector, and the balance to the treasurer of the Board of Management for the use of the Egba Government.

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*N. B.—Europeans and strangers coming to or going out of Abeokuta should obtain for their protection the Alake's staff (beaded), through the Amono Oba of Abeokuta, in order to prevent and keep their persons and property sacred from violence by the way, agreeably to the above regulation.

6. That this ordinance shall take effect immediately on the publication thereof.

Passed in the Board of Management, Rock Hill, Abeokuta, this 1st day of January, and confirmed by the Alake on the 17th, under the national flag seal of the United Kingdoms of the Egba, Alake, Olowu, Osile, and Agura, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and eighty-one.

By command:

GEO. W. JOHNSON,
Amono Oba.

N. B.—Goods and merchandise of all kinds imported free of duty; rum and gin will be subjected to duty in January, 1882.

CATTLE AND CATTLE TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

REPORT BY CONSUL PACKARD, OF LIVERPOOL.

I have obtained from the office of the veterinary department of the privy council at London, in advance of publication by that office, a return of the number of cattle, sheep, and swine imported from the United States into the port of Liverpool during the first six months of the present year, viz: 11,392 cattle, 10,874 sheep, and no swine. Of these, one was affected with contagious disease, viz, pleuro-pneumonia, which came amongst a cargo of 175 cattle from New York.

I have the honor also to transmit herewith a special report upon the cattle trade and sanitary condition of the animals in Great Britain for the year 1881, compiled from the official report published by the veterinary department of the privy council at London.

CATTLE TRADE OF LIVERPOOL WITH THE UNITED STATES DURING 1881.

From the report published by the veterinary department of the privy council of Great Britain, it appears that during the year 1881 there were imported from the United States into this port 42,326 cattle, 25,643 sheep, and 1,030 swine, exhibiting a decrease of 20,810 cattle and 9,527 swine, but an increase of 886 sheep, when compared with the import of 1880.

The following table shows the number of those animals which, on landing, were found affected with contagious or infectious disease, together with the number of healthy animals which were brought in the same vessels with the diseased animals:

Ports from whence brought.	Disease.	Diseased animals.				Healthy animals brought in the same vessels with diseased animals.			
		Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine	Total.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Baltimore	Swine fever	.....	.....	12	12	.....	.....	73	73
Boston	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1				
Do	Foot and mouth	1,023	.....	.....	1,023	1,384	301	446	2,131
Do	Sheep-scab	.....	108	.....	108				
Do	Swine fever	.....	.....	70	70				
New York	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1	355	.....	.....	355
Do	Foot and mouth	4	.....	.....	4				
Portland	do	321	.....	.....	321	69	.....	.....	69
Total		1,350	108	82	1,540	1,808	301	519	2,628

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN IN FOREIGN LIVE-STOCK.

In comparison with the year 1880, there was a considerable decrease in the number of animals imported from countries out of the United Kingdom during last year.

The following table shows the number of cattle, sheep, and swine imported into Great Britain from the United States, and the ports at which landed, during the year 1881:

Ports at which landed.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Barrow in Furness	399			399
Bristol	3,658	4,184	523	8,365
Cardiff	783			783
Glasgow	9,074	196		9,270
Grimsby			1	1
Hartlepool	489	2,581	98	3,168
Hull	1,192	441		1,633
Liverpool	42,326	25,643	1,030	68,999
London	45,586	16,178	121	61,885
Shields (South)	186			186
Total	103,693	49,223	1,773	154,689

It will be seen that Liverpool is now the chief port at which American cattle are landed.

The following table shows the number of cattle, sheep, and swine imported from the United States into Great Britain during the past five years:

Year.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
1877	11,538	13,120	226	24,884
1878	68,450	43,940	16,321	128,711
1879	76,117	119,350	15,180	210,647
1880	154,814	66,722	12,549	234,085
1881	103,693	49,223	1,773	154,689

It will be seen that there is a decrease of 51,121 cattle, 17,499 sheep, and 10,776 swine imported from the United States, when compared with 1880.

Canada also showed a decrease of about 16,000 animals compared with 1880, and there was a considerable falling off in the number of animals from Spain. It may be observed that the total decrease in the number of imported animals is only marked in comparison with the number of the previous year. If 1880 be eliminated from the calculation, there is nothing worthy of special notice in the number of animals imported from abroad during the past five years. It would, in fact, seem that the falling off in the foreign import of 1881 was rather a return to the normal state of things which had been interrupted by the exceptionally large imports of animals from the United States in 1880.

No marked effect was produced in the price of meat by the falling off in the number of imported animals in 1881 as compared with the previous year. Beef in 1880 was on the average selling at 13 cents per pound, and large prime 17 cents per pound; mutton, second class, 17 cents; Southdowns, 20 cents per pound; while in 1881 inferior beef was 13 cents, and the best quality 17 cents per pound, and mutton 17 cents and 20 cents per pound.

The following table shows the number of foreign cattle, sheep, and swine imported into Great Britain, and the countries from which received, during 1881:

Countries from which imported.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Belgium	.....	27,411	20	27,431
Channel Islands	2,396	.....	.....	2,396
Denmark	61,976	88,491	9,335	159,802
France	2,503	2	34	2,539
Germany (ex-Schleswig-Holstein)	.....	401,999	3,908	405,907
Germany (Schleswig-Holstein)	23,866	43,142	.....	67,008
Netherlands	35,960	254,477	5,771	296,208
Norway	716	2,037	.....	2,753
Portugal	14,082	.....	.....	14,082
Spain	16,696	134	.....	16,830
Sweden	15,718	4,650	3,587	23,955
Algeria	74	.....	.....	74
Azores	78	.....	.....	78
Canada	44,389	6,478	31	110,898
Morocco	51	.....	.....	51
New South Wales	.....	10	.....	10
United States	103,693	49,223	1,773	154,689
Total	322,198	938,054	24,459	1,284,711

The following table shows the number of foreign cattle, sheep, and swine imported into Great Britain, and the ports at which landed, during 1881:

Ports at which landed.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Barrow in Furness	399	.....	.....	399
Bristol	4,802	7,034	549	12,385
Cardiff	783	.....	.....	783
Falmouth	4,042	.....	.....	4,042
Glasgow	20,912	11,224	.....	32,136
Goole	2	424	.....	426
Granton	4	11,564	.....	11,568
Grimsby	420	7,606	168	8,194
Hartlepool	713	22,524	441	23,678
Harwich	14,149	20,795	30	34,974
Hull	10,014	38,676	801	49,491
Leith	2,266	1,084	.....	3,350
Liverpool	66,457	64,888	1,032	132,377
London	126,668	695,067	8,584	830,319
Newcastle-on-Tyne	55,796	56,096	12,825	124,717
Plymouth	4,601	.....	.....	4,601
Portsmouth	2,875	.....	.....	2,875
Shields (South)	186	.....	.....	186
Southampton	6,817	36	.....	6,853
Sunderland	.....	1,036	29	1,065
Weymouth	292	.....	.....	292
Total	322,198	938,054	24,459	1,284,711

The total number of imported animals from all countries out of the United Kingdom was 1,284,711, against 1,379,838 in 1880.

From European countries exclusive of the Channel Islands the imports were 171,517 cattle, 822,343 sheep, and 22,655 swine, against 180,877 cattle, 797,482 sheep, and 37,907 swine in 1880.

From Canada the imports were 44,389 cattle, 66,478 sheep, and 31 swine, against 48,103 cattle, 78,074 sheep, and 661 swine in 1880.

From the United States the imports were 103,693 cattle, 49,223 sheep, and 1,773 swine, against 154,814 cattle, 66,722 sheep, and 12,549 swine in 1880.

From the Channel Islands the imports were 2,396 cattle against 2,632 cattle in 1880; and from other countries 203 cattle, 10 sheep, against 6 cattle, 1 sheep in 1880.

From Ireland the imports were 571,557 cattle, 577,627 sheep, and

382,995 swine, against 721,391 cattle, 714,763 sheep, and 372,890 swine in 1880, showing a decrease, as compared with the imports of 1880, of over 276,000 animals. The total number of animals imported from all sources in 1881 was 2,816,890, against 3,188,882 in 1880, a deficiency in 1881 of 371,992 animals.

NUMBER OF CARGOES IN WHICH DISEASE WAS DETECTED.

There were landed in Great Britain during 1881, from places out of the United Kingdom, exclusive of the Channel Islands, 2,913 cargoes of animals, consisting of 319,802 cattle, 938,054 sheep, and 24,459 swine. In 179 cargoes the inspectors detected disease among the animals on landing in this country. The cargoes came from the following countries:

Belgium, 71 cargoes, of which 2 cargoes, consisting of 892 sheep, contained 12 sheep affected with sheep scab.

Denmark, 421 cargoes, of which 2 cargoes, consisting of 559 cattle, 180 sheep, and 41 swine, contained 2 sheep affected with sheep-scab and 6 swine affected with swine-fever.

France, 57 cargoes, of which 34 cargoes, consisting of 1,942 cattle, contained 542 cattle affected with foot and mouth disease.

Germany, 527 cargoes, of which 32 cargoes, consisting of 40,261 sheep and 173 swine, contained 755 sheep and 23 swine affected with foot and mouth disease, 1 sheep affected with sheep-pox, and 348 sheep affected with sheep-scab.

The Netherlands, 657 cargoes, of which 7 cargoes, consisting of 514 cattle, 1,657 sheep, and 14 swine, contained 18 cattle, 17 sheep, and 4 swine affected with foot and mouth disease.

Portugal, 95 cargoes, of which 30 cargoes, consisting of 4,470 cattle, contained 285 cattle affected with foot and mouth disease.

Spain, 298 cargoes, of which 26 cargoes, consisting of 2,108 cattle, contained 377 cattle affected with foot and mouth disease.

Canada, 173 cargoes, of which 6 cargoes, consisting of 1,000 cattle and 2,638 sheep, contained 137 cattle and 64 sheep affected with foot and mouth disease, and 108 sheep affected with sheep-scab.

United States of America, 473 cargoes, of whch 40 cargoes, consisting of 9,000 cattle, 2,704 sheep, and 1,116 swine, contained 39 cattle affected with pleuro-pneumonia, 2,750 cattle and 5 sheep affected with foot and mouth disease, 178 sheep affected with sheep-scab, and 151 swine affected with swine-fever.

CASUALTIES TO ANIMALS CROSSING THE ATLANTIC.

The following record of casualties is taken from the returns furnished by inspectors at the ports where the American and Canadian animals were landed:

From Canada there were imported in 1881, to the ports of Bristol, Glasgow, Liverpool, London, and Southampton, 173 cargoes of animals, consisting of 42,389 cattle, 66,478 sheep, and 31 swine, of which 92 cattle and 124 sheep were landed dead, and 30 cattle and 200 sheep had to be slaughtered at the place of landing owing to injuries received in transit. Besides the animals which were landed dead or alive, 618 cattle and 3,098 sheep were thrown overboard during the voyage.

From the United States there were imported in 1881, to the ports of Barrow-in-Furness, Bristol, Cardiff, Glasgow, Hartlepool, Hull, London, Liverpool, and South Shields, 473 cargoes of animals, consisting of 103,693 cattle, 49,223 sheep, and 1,773 swine, of which 176 cattle, 96 sheep,

and 10 swine were landed dead; and 110 cattle, 199 sheep, and 13 swine were so much injured that it was necessary to slaughter them immediately on landing, besides which, 3,387 cattle, 947 sheep, and 221 swine were thrown overboard during the voyage.

Thus it appears that 8,271 animals were thrown overboard, 498 landed dead, and 452 so much injured or exhausted that they were killed at the place of landing, making a total number of 9,221 animals which were either lost or seriously injured on the passage across the Atlantic.

SANITARY CONDITION OF CATTLE IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Cattle-plague.—During the year 1881 no outbreak of cattle-plague was reported to have occurred in Great Britain, and no cases of that disease were detected among animals from abroad by the inspectors at English ports.

Pleuro-pneumonia.—This disease existed in 45 counties in Great Britain during 1881; the number of outbreaks reported was 729, as against 1,052 in 1880. The number of cattle attacked was 1,875, as against 2,765 in 1880, and two remained diseased at the end of that year; the number of cattle slaughtered during 1881 was 1,797, and 78 died.

It appears from the returns that during 1881 the disease existed in thirty-one counties in England; 643 outbreaks occurred, 1,554 cattle were attacked with the disease, 1,478 were killed, and 76 died.

Only one outbreak was reported from Wales. In Scotland the disease has been reported from thirteen counties, 85 outbreaks were reported, 320 cattle were attacked. Of these 318 were slaughtered and 2 died.

These returns compare favorably with those of the previous year. Not only has there been a decrease in the number of outbreaks throughout Great Britain, but the number of cattle returned as affected during 1881 was 890 less than in the previous year.

The following table shows the number of outbreaks reported and the number of cattle attacked with pleuro-pneumonia during the past six years:

Year.	Number of outbreaks.	Animals attacked.
1876	2,178	5,253
1877	2,007	5,330
1878	1,721	4,593
1879	1,549	4,414
1880	1,052	2,765
1881	729	1,875

It must be admitted that the above shows a great diminution in the number of cattle reported to be attacked with this disease since "The contagious diseases (animals) act, 1878," came into force.

Foot and mouth disease.—In the report of the veterinary department for the year 1880, numerous inquiries were made by the inspectors of the department into the outbreaks of foot and mouth disease which were reported to have occurred in various parts of the country, and it was shown that in the majority of the nineteen outbreaks which were returned during the first nine months of the year the animals were found to be affected with diseases other than foot and mouth disease. The introduction of the disease by means of cattle landed at Deptford from France during the month of September, 1880, established a center from which the infection was conveyed by means of persons who had

been at that market. From the metropolis it extended to no less than thirty-seven counties in England by the end of the year. At the commencement of 1881 these thirty-seven counties remained infected, and fourteen whole counties were under restrictions, having been declared infected by the privy council.

At this period the disease existed in thirty-four of the forty-seven counties in England, and the number of outbreaks reported during the week ending January 1 was 282, and by the end of the month five other counties had become infected. During March the disease rapidly declined, the number of outbreaks reported being 212 as compared with 510 in February. Many of the counties became so far free as to permit the infected areas being reduced, while several infected areas were declared free. At the beginning of April the disease had diminished to such an extent that only 25 outbreaks were reported at the end of the first week, and was the lowest number recorded since November 6, 1880.

The number of outbreaks increased from 233 in September to 508 in October, but in the latter month it was again reduced to 118. At the commencement of December the returns fell so low that there appeared to be every indication of the disease becoming extinct; but towards the middle of the month it suddenly increased, when thirteen counties which had been free during the five previous months became again infected. There is little doubt that this fresh distribution of the disease was due to the removal of infected cattle throughout the country in anticipation of the approaching Christmas markets.

No outbreak of foot and mouth disease occurred in Scotland during the year.

The total number of outbreaks of this disease, reported during the year 1881, was 4,833, and the number of animals attacked was 183,046; this compares favorably with the outbreak of 1871; in that year the number of outbreaks amounted to 52,164, and the number of animals attacked was 691,565.

Sheep-pox.—This disease has not appeared in Great Britain during the year 1881, but a cargo of sheep was landed at Deptford, among which one animal was found to be affected with the disease. The whole cargo was at once isolated and slaughtered at the wharf, and the carcass of the diseased animal destroyed, under the supervision of the inspector of the privy council.

Sheep-scab.—Returns of this disease have been received from seventy-seven counties in Great Britain during 1881, viz: forty-four in England, ten in Wales, and twenty-three in Scotland; 2,055 fresh outbreaks have been reported during the year, and 32,571 sheep have been attacked; this shows an increase compared with the returns received during 1880, when the disease was reported in seventy counties in Great Britain; the outbreaks were 1,556, and the number of sheep attacked 26,173.

Swine-fever.—The returns received with reference to this disease show a diminution in the number of outbreaks, and of the number of swine attacked during the year 1881, as compared with 1880. During 1881 the disease appeared in forty-four counties in England, seven in Wales, and five in Scotland, making a total of fifty-six infected counties in Great Britain; 1,717 fresh outbreaks have been reported; 7,994 swine have been attacked, 6,217 were slaughtered diseased, 1,781 died, and 24 recovered.

In addition to this, 1,681 healthy swine, which had been in contact with diseased animals on infected premises, were slaughtered, and 136

were removed from infected places for slaughter with a license of the local authority.

Glanders and farcy.—During 1881 returns of glanders were received from thirty counties in Great Britain, viz: twenty-four in England, three in Wales, and three in Scotland. The total fresh outbreaks reported were 659, and the number of animals attacked 1,095, of which 18 were reported to have died and 2 recovered. These figures show a decrease as compared with the returns of 1880, when this disease was reported to exist in thirty-five counties, and the number of fresh outbreaks was 938, while the number of animals attacked amounted to 1,346, of which 23 died.

Returns of farcy were received from nineteen counties in England, and one in Scotland. The total fresh outbreaks reported were 353, and the number of animals attacked amounted to 625, of which 4 died and 17 recovered.

COMPENSATION.

The total amount of compensation paid by local authorities in Great Britain for animals slaughtered under "The contagious diseases (animals) act" during the year 1881 amounted to $140,437.

S. B. PACKARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liverpool, October 26, 1882.

JUTE INDUSTRY OF DUNDEE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WELLS FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1882.

Jute trade.—Within the past two months there has been a slight rise in the price of jute manufactures and a considerable fall in the price of raw material; in consequence thereof the trade is presently in a fairly prosperous state. This is gratifying to manufacturers, who have felt the prolonged stagnant condition of the business, and they think signs are not wanting to indicate a continuance of this prosperity.

The jute imported direct from Calcutta and Chittagong (India) into Dundee, from 1st January to 30th September, 1882, inclusive, far exceeds the quantity imported for the same period in any previous year. During said nine months there arrived in Dundee from above-mentioned ports seventy-six vessels of 110,299 tons, bringing 766,126 bales of jute. The arrivals for same period in 1881 were sixty-six vessels of 93,261 tons, bringing 644,028 bales. Thus showing an increase for 1882 of ten vessels, 17,018 tons, and 122,098 bales.

Recently much of the jute coming into Dundee has arrived in a damaged condition, entailing a serious loss to importers. The injury was caused, it is said, by the jute being shipped when not fully dry and the ships engaged in its transit not being sufficiently ventilated. Steps have been taken to remedy this evil by compelling more care in package and stowage.

The average passage of these seventy-six vessels has been one hun-

dred and sixteen days, although some have accomplished the journey under one hundred days; notably, a Dundee-owned-and-built clipper sailing-ship, which only occupied ninety days—the fastest run on record.

No steamers, it is considered, will probably be employed to carry jute direct here this season, as the stock already in this country is heavy, and November and December shipments via the cape are likely to be large.

Jute freights from Calcutta have varied much during the year, ruling from $12.50 to $18 per ton for sailing vessels via the cape to Dundee, and from $15 to $19 via the Suez Canal.

The following table shows the imports of jute direct and from all sources into Dundee for years mentioned:

Years ending 31st December.	Direct importation.			Total importation, all sources.
	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.	Bales.	Tons.
1870	26	30,317	207,208	81,740
1871	57	60,690	473,097	102,844
1872	77	94,450	649,677	127,190
1873	81	101,440	709,871	143,150
1874	62	77,401	523,197	117,375
1875	62	83,252	573,230	113,930
1876	63	87,540	582,249	118,571
1877	50	68,568	456,209	107,616
1878	72	97,353	658,585	128,508
1879	79	108,486	739,172	151,291
1880	60	81,131	579,635	139,962
1881	84	116,101	825,862	160,273
1882*	76	110,299	766,126	145,023

*From 1st January to 30th September, 1882.

It will be seen from this table that the largest annual quantity of jute that ever came into Dundee was in 1881. This year's imports, it is anticipated, will be even greater than that of last year.

These figures show the extraordinary and rapid development of the direct trade between Calcutta and Dundee. Manufacturers here have found from experience that the reshipment of jute in London and Liverpool for this port was costly and inconvenient. With commendable enterprise, therefore, they arranged to have their raw material landed at their works as cheaply and expeditiously as possible. That they have effectually managed this, the foregoing facts prove.

A magnificent fleet of vessels, largely belonging to Dundee owners, is engaged in this trade. The harbor trustees of this port have been energetic and have not spared capital in making the river and docks suitable for entering the largest vessels, and also in providing the best facilities for loading and discharging quickly. Any plan likely to foster and encourage direct trade with India has been adopted by harbor authorities and manufacturers. Accordingly, Dundee has been better able to hold its ground and to compete keenly in the markets of the world with its great staple manufacture, viz, coarse jute fabrics.

The prices for unmanufactured jute have decreased during the year £2 10*s.* to £3 10*s.* per ton. At 30th September, 1881, the price per ton for best qualities was from £19 10*s.* to £20 10*s.*; it now stands at from £17 to £18. The fall has been gradual all through, but most rapid within the past four months. This marked reduction in price is due to the supply of old crop being in excess of demand, and sellers of new crop, which is abundant and good, forcing it on the market. Jute, it is sup-

posed, will be plentiful, excellent in quality, and cheap this year. The following table shows the price of jute for 1882 and 1881 at time specified:

Description.	Price per ton.	
	September 30, 1882.	September 30, 1881.
	£ s. £ s.	£ s. £ s.
Fine	17 00 to 19 00	19 10 to 20 10
Good medium	14 10 to 16 00	18 10 to 19 10
Medium	13 00 to 14 00	16 10 to 17 10
Good common	12 00 to 13 00	14 10 to 15 10
Rejections and common	10 00 to 11 00	13 00 to 14 00

The consumption of jute for manufacturing purposes in Europe, India, and other parts of the world is now estimated at 2,200,000 bales, almost entirely supplied by the province of Bengal. The annual imports of jute goods into the United States is very large, and is rapidly increasing. The immense proportions that this trade has assumed has led American economists to watch carefully its progress and development, with the view of ascertaining whether the United States could not produce this fiber profitably for its own use and also for export. Mr. C. Menelas, of the Cotton Exchange in New York, and of New Orleans, who made a very able and comprehensive statement before the Tariff Commission at Long Branch, as to the importance of encouraging the cultivation of jute in the United States, has been in communication with this office on the subject. As this correspondence may be deemed of public interest, copy of same is hereto annexed. Mr. Menelas wrote first as under:

COTTON EXCHANGE,
New York, April 28, 1882.

DEAR SIR: I read with interest all your reports on jute. In that of last March I notice that an association has sent a gentleman to Egypt for the purpose of encouraging there the jute culture, and that samples received from that place have been found very good. If said association has published any pamphlet with instructions how to plant jute, I shall be very glad to receive a copy of it. I am myself very much interested in the culture of jute; have a large plantation at Brookhaven, Miss., and during the last three years have demonstrated practically that jute grows with us as luxuriantly as it does in India, where I have lived for over nine years. Last year I sowed some fiber by the process of rotting the stalks in water. My samples have been examined by the best experts in this city, and pronounced as excellent in every respect and as worth the highest price paid for the best qualities imported from Calcutta. This year I shall have 15 to 25 acres in jute, and Mr. Dennis is getting ready to send to my plantation the necessary machinery patented by Albert Angell, and a competent man to work my crop. Representatives of the press will be invited to see the operations and report results. Should the machine do the work successfully, as it is claimed (and I believe it will do it), jute culture will become in the Southern States general and of great importance. I have created a great interest on the subject, and my experiments are watched with great attention; also those of silk culture. Shall feel extremely obliged to you for any information on the progress of jute culture in Egypt. Hoping you will excuse the liberty of troubling you,

I remain, &c.

Reply to foregoing.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.
Dundee (Scotland), June 2, 1882.

DEAR SIR: I have to acknowledge receipt of your important letter dated 28th April last. After considerable trouble I have managed to obtain a copy of the "Report to the subscribers by Mr. Grant on the experiments of jute cultivation in Egypt," which, doubtless, you will find both interesting and useful, as it contains "instructions for the cultivation, maceration, and preparation of jute."

I had great difficulty in getting a copy of this report, as it was printed entirely for private circulation among the subscribers, but I was determined, if possible, to lay my hands on one, as I knew it embraced valuable hints as to the cultivation and preparation of jute, which I trust you can utilize practically.

The gentleman who was good enough to give me the said report, is very anxious to get some information regarding the machine patented by Mr. Albert Angell, for preparing jute. I took the liberty of saying that I believed you would with pleasure reciprocate his favor by transmitting, through me, information on the points noteworthy which you recognized in Mr. Angell's invention. Perhaps you will kindly do this.

Permit me just to say that, like yourself, I have taken great interest in the subject of jute cultivation in the United States, and have done my best to disseminate what facts I thought might tend to encourage what, I am convinced, would be a profitable industry for some of our States.

Inclosed herewith please find said report, and rely upon me being always at your service.

I am, &c.

Mr. Menelas again wrote as follows:

COTTON EXCHANGE,
New York, June 16, 1882.

DEAR SIR: Allow me to express to you my grateful thanks for your courteous letter of the 2d instant, and also for Mr. Grant's report, which I find a very interesting document as containing valuable information and instructions bearing upon the process of sowing the jute fiber.

We have here none of the difficulties and prejudices which Mr. Grant had to fight in Egypt. Had he directed his attention towards this great country instead of Egypt, his intelligent efforts would have been now crowned with success. Our only drawback here is the non-abundance of labor, but we are in justified hopes of replacing it with machinery, and this once done, we shall be in a position to compete with India and supply the world's wants of jute of a very superior quality.

My small crop of about 15 acres looks now well; and I hope nothing will occur to injure it, so as to afford me the opportunity of *practically* and *thoroughly* trying Mr. Angell's apparatus as soon as the plant is ready. Then, sir, I shall be most happy to send you a faithful report on the working of the machinery and upon the results obtained, for your own satisfaction and for information of the gentleman who kindly sent me Mr. Grant's report. This I will do most cheerfully, and pray command me for any other information you or your friend may need upon this all-important subject.

I am, &c.

Mr. Menelas was written to as under:

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,
Dundee (Scotland), June 13, 1882.

DEAR SIR: Mr. W. F. Sommerville, jute merchant here, with whom I am personally acquainted, has asked me for your name and address, with the view of opening up correspondence with you, as I understand, regarding the cultivation of jute in the United States.

I am, &c.

The last letter received from Mr. Menelas was as follows:

COTTON EXCHANGE,
New York, July 14, 1882.

DEAR SIR: I had the pleasure of writing you on the 16th ultimo. I have only to add to-day that my jute crop, according to last letters, is doing very well, so far. The patentee is ready to go and do the work as soon as the plant is ripe, and then I shall give you the result of our operations.

Don't you think our country is best adapted for Mr. Grant's object? We have here the climate, soil, water, and railroad facilities such as no other part of the globe possesses. I have myself a very large plantation, with saw-mill on it, cotton gin, houses, grist-mill, and new jute decorticator. I shall be happy to co-operate with Mr. Grant and make all experiments, either at my plantation or elsewhere. No scarcity of good lands in this country. My experience in jute raising and the knowledge of this country will be at Mr. Grant's disposal, and working together we can solve the problem much easier. If you think it proper to have a talk with Mr. Grant on the subject you may do so, and let me know at your convenience his dispositions.

Another man from Saint Louis, Mo., writes to say that he has machinery that can

save the jute fiber easily and at very reasonable cost. Have promised to call and see machinery in operation.

I am, &c.

In order to reply to this letter, Mr. Grant was communicated with, as follows:

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.
Dundee, August 5, 1882.

DEAR SIR: I am sorry to hear of your indisposition. With pleasure I send you Mr. Menelas's letters for perusal, although I should have been much pleased to have seen you, to talk over the subject-matter of these letters. Perhaps, however, you will favor me with your ideas in writing.

I am, &c.

Reply to above from Mr. Grant.

ST. ANDREWS, *August* 16, 1882.

DEAR SIR: Herewith are Mr. Menelas's letters, which I have read with interest, and for the perusal of which I have to thank you very much. I have to apologize for the delay in returning them, but I have been confined to bed for a week by indisposition.

I do not see how I can co-operate with Mr. Menelas in promoting the culture of jute in America, unless he, or rather the State to which he belongs, made it worth my while to go to America to teach them. I may at once say that I would not go under £1,000 and traveling expenses.

I am, &c.

Mr. Menelas was written to finally as under:

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,
Dundee, Scotland, August 17, 1882.

DEAR SIR: I am only now in a position to reply to your esteemed favor of 14th July last. When I received your letter I determined to see Mr. Grant to talk over with him the subject of jute cultivation in the United States, with the view of getting his ideas thereon and of communicating the same to you. I found out that Mr. Grant lived at St. Andrews, some 13 to 15 miles from here. So I wrote him an invitation to call upon me the first time he was in Dundee, as I would show him some letters from a gentleman in the United States who was growing jute in that country. In answer, he said he regretted his inability (through illness) to wait upon me, as he was sure your letters would be highly interesting for him to read, and asked me as a favor in the circumstances to send them on to him for perusal. I did so, and at the same time requested him to be good enough to let me know what he thought of the subject-matter of your letters. To-day Mr. Grant returned your letters, together with a letter from himself, a copy of which I append hereto. I have nothing further to add meantime, beyond stating that it shall always afford me pleasure to hear from you and to render you my best official as well as personal services.

I am, &c.

This correspondence tells its own tale. I think Mr. Menelas has shown great zeal in prosecuting the business of jute growing in America, and doubtless has demonstrated practically that in some parts of the United States the soil and climate are admirably adapted for the production of this fiber. It may confidently be expected, judging from his great experience, acquired information, and energy, that he will be successful in inaugurating this new and perhaps profitable industry for the United States. The only apparent difficulty in the way is to decorticate the jute stalk. This, it is admitted, could not be economically done by hand labor. The machinery invented by Mr. Angell for this purpose will, however, in all probability overcome this obstacle.

It was noticed in the chief local newspaper here that Mr. E. T. Putnam, of Louisiana, had successfully grown jute there and had the same manufactured in New Orleans; also that this gentleman had expressed the belief that jute would shortly be recognized in his State as a most remunerative plant to cultivate. All information relating to jute is picked up, published, and eagerly read by Dundee manufacturers and merchants.

The United States is not the only country that is interesting itself in the growing of jute. Several samples of jute were exhibited in the Royal Exchange here, cultivated and prepared by Mr. John Steele, of

Messrs. Andrew Steele & Co., Rio de Janeiro, from seed imported by him and grown in the parish of Gavêa, a suburb of that city. These samples were of beautiful silken fiber, strong, of capital color, and several spinners pronounced the quality excellent. This is the first jute grown and shipped from Brazil, and it is reported that there is a great desire to plant jute in that country on a large scale, as there is a wide extent of land, suitable for its culture and also of easy and cheap access, which could be purchased at a low figure. The only difficulty standing in the way, it is asserted, is to obtain a machine to extract the fiber to facilitate its quick preparation for the market. The sailing distance between Brazil and Dundee is of considerable importance, as steamers take only twenty-five days and sailing vessels from six to eight weeks for the passage, a much shorter time than from India.

The late war in Egypt has interfered with the scheme that was being carried on in that country to cultivate jute in the Delta. It was believed that some definite progress had been made in that direction through the efforts of an association in Dundee already referred to. Recent complications have, however, done much to undo the labors of this company. The work will need to be commenced almost anew, and many of the obstacles interposed by ignorance and prejudice again overcome. Much patient and persevering effort will be required, it is stated, to gain a substantial success, and to establish jute culture as a permanent industry in Egypt.

The price of manufactured jute has fluctuated comparatively little during the past year. Quotations have been uniformly low all throughout, with a sinking tendency till June last, when they began slowly to recover, and now stand at much the same figure (rather lower) as at this time last year, although really vastly better for the makers. Jute being now so remarkably cheap enables them to work at a profit, whereas last year it was understood they were losing money. The following comparative table shows the price of jute goods in Dundee as at 30th September, 1882 and 1881:

Description.	Price at—	
	September 30, 1882.	September 30, 1881.
JUTE YARNS.		
7 pounds jute yarn, first quality.....per spool..	£ s. to £ s. 1 5½ to 1 6½	£ s. to £ s. 1 7 to 1 8
7 pounds jute yarn, extra, first quality.....do....	1 9 to 1 10	1 10 to 1 11
8 to 9 pounds sacking chains, first quality.....per pound..	2⅛ to 2⅜	2⅛ to 2⅛
8 to 9 pounds Hessian chains, first quality.....do ...	2⅜ to 2⅝	2⅝ to 2⅞
10 to 14 pounds yarn, first quality.....do...	2½ to 2⅝	2⅝ to 2⅞
24 pounds yarn, first quality .....do....	1⅞ to 2	2 to 2⅛
40 pounds yarn, first quality.....do....	1¾ to 1⅞	1⅞ to 1⅞
JUTE FABRICS AND BAGS.		
40-inch 11 porter, 10½-ounce jute, Hessian, or burlaps....per foot..	2 1/12 to 2⅛	2 1/12 to 2⅛
40-inch 16 porter, 10½-ounce flax, tow warp, and jute weft, Hessian, or burlaps.....per foot..	3⅛ to 3¼	3¼ to 3⅜
45-inch 11 porter, 2-ounce tarpauling..... .....do ..	3⅜ to 4	4 to 4⅛
27-inch 8 porter, 1¼-pound twilled jute sacking ....do ..	3⅛ to 3¼	3¼ to 3⅜
29 inch 8 porter, 1¼-pound twilled jute sacking.....do....	3⅜ to 3⅝	3⅜ to 3 5/12
26-inch 7 porter, 2¼-pound twilled jute sacks, 3-bushel, per sack..	7 to 7½	7⅜ to 7⅝
27-inch 8 porter, 10½-pound twilled jute wool-packs ....per pack..	2 4 to 2 5	2 5 to 2 6
44-inch 7 porter, 18-ounce double-warp bagging.....per yard..	2⅞ to 3	3 to 3⅛
44-inch 7 porter, 24-ounce double-warp bagging .....do..	3⅛ to 3⅜	3¼ to 3⅜

From this table it will be noticed that yarn is considerably below the prices of last year. This is specially due to the fact of jute at present being so very cheap. The main reason attributed for continued low

prices for these goods is that the production is in excess of the legiti mate consumption. For some years back Dundee has been losing a large share of the trade of many important markets in the world. The exports of jute fabrics to Germany, Austria, and Russia show a steady decline since the establishment of increased tariffs by these countries. Austria is now manufacturing jute goods largely, and it is asserted that the machinery necessary for spinning and weaving same, which was made in England and Scotland, was permitted by the Austrian Government to enter that country, if not free, at any rate at a great reduction of duty, in order to encourage and foster the industry.

Australia and San Francisco—which city imports upwards of 20,000,000 jute bags annually—are now chiefly supplied by Calcutta. There are more than 5,000 looms in the Calcutta mills, which have been working for some time profitably to their proprietors. Two years ago these mill shares could be purchased at a heavy discount, but they are now, with one exception, quoted at a premium. The dullness in the linen branches prevalent for a long time allowed a large number of looms to be put on jute burlaps, which are easily made and always salable at a price. Notwithstanding all this, the turnout of common jute goods has not been curtailed, but rather increased. Because manufacturers began to look more carefully into the question of expense per yard, and finding in many cases that where they had sufficient power and space they could increase the quantity without increasing proportionately the cost, they gradually set about doing so. This, then, is why more goods have been manufactured than was actually wanted. Through the loss of so many outlets for their goods, manufacturers here have been forced to consign largely to the United States, with the natural consequence that markets there have been often glutted and prices unduly depressed for shippers, but most favorable to buyers. Thus America for some years back has been supplied with unlimited quantities of jute goods at the most minimum rates. The consumption of burlaps must have increased to a great extent in the United States within the past three years, but it is scarcely possible to believe that the demand can have risen from 34 per cent. of the total export from Great Britain in 1879 to 47 per cent. in 1880, and almost 50 per cent. in 1881, as the following table shows:

Total exportation of jute goods to the United States from Great Britain.

Years.	Yards.	Proportion of total exportation from Great Britain.
		Per cent.
1872	24, 121, 000	30
1873	25, 015, 000	26
1874	36, 099, 000	31
1875	32, 239, 000	32
1876	44, 476, 000	37
1877	34, 679, 000	30
1878	35, 241, 000	28
1879	55, 748, 000	34
1880	86, 307, 000	47
1881	101, 613, 000	49

The figures conclusively prove that lately the United States has been perfectly inundated with jute goods, as no other markets were so open to receive them.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Dundee, Scotland, to the United States, during the four quarters of the year ending 30th September, 1882; also a comparative statement of the total exports for the years ending 30th September, 1881 and 1882.

CONSULAR DISTRICT OF DUNDEE.

Articles.	Total for the year in United States gold.	Total for the previous year.	Increase.	Decrease.
Burlaps	$3,351,363 96	$3,725,100 81	.....	$373,736 85
Linens	2,450,274 63	2,171,872 06	$278,402 57	.....
Yarn	607,198 19	295,391 74	311,806 45	.....
Paper stock	224,743 64	208,322 38	16,421 26	.....
Padding	91,183 26	183,050 03	.....	91,866 77
Bagging	69,813 19	52,652 68	17,160 51	.....
Hemp	77,445 99	24,752 99	52,693 00	.....
Gauge glasses	8,606 96	7,207 81	1,399 15	.....
Flax	73,065 01	97,844 72	.....	24,779 71
Carpets	8,436 29	16,399 60	.....	7,963 31
Canvas	45,912 64	60,805 92	.....	14,893 28
Bags	55,809 46	128,252 39	.....	72,442 93
Tow	14,443 76	34,896 83	.....	20,453 07
Tarpaulin	4,015 46	8,286 70	.....	4,271 24
Black canvas	318 33	441 66	.....	123 33
Matting	438 00	472 83	.....	34 83
Old furniture	83 24	.....	83 24	.....
Machinery	1,275 93	6,721 81	.....	5,445 88
Sail-duck	13,332 67	7,908 40	5,424 27	.....
Potatoes	460,924 05	.....	460,924 05	.....
Old iron rails	4,172 65	2,689 71	1,482 94	.....
Whisky	694 11	102 38	591 73	.....
Books on chess, draughts, and other games	235 87	.....	235 87	.....
Towels	6,945 84	30,565 37	.....	23,619 53
Scrim	2,903 69	2,898 68	5 01	.....
Stoneware whorles	17 86	.....	17 86	.....
Wove corsets	252 31	.....	252 31	.....
Jute press cloth	1,063 63	.....	1,063 63	.....
Plants	418 34	386 61	31 73	.....
Double banding	297 19	.....	297 19	.....
Antique furniture	222 40	.....	222 40	.....
Jute twine	843 16	709 80	133 36	.....
Horse-blanketing	9,382 76	301 99	9,080 77	.....
Parceling	822 48	.....	822 48	.....
Second-hand bags	243 35	.....	243 35	.....
Market or school bags	8,760 27	1,309 29	7,450 98	.....
Wool bags	2,357 45	.....	2,357 45	.....
Handkerchiefs	166 45	.....	166 45	.....
Cotton banding	177 93	.....	177 93	.....
Salt sacking	94 21	.....	94 21	.....
Picking bands	120 07	.....	120 07	.....
Tarred oakum	1,736 17	226 87	1,509 30	.....
Personal effects	121 67	70 85	50 82	.....
Second-hand machinery	1,552 69	3,427 77	.....	1,875 08
Cropping machines	684 84	.....	684 84	.....
Soda-water machine	75 54	.....	75 54	.....
Cargo mats	1,034 24	.....	1,034 24	.....
Second-hand steam loom	52 93	.....	52 93	.....
Books	24 33	.....	24 33	.....
Polished granite	199 55	.....	199 55	.....
Napkins	.....	1,404 74	.....	1,407 74
Steel rails	.....	97,219 53	.....	97,219 53
Jute cord	.....	532 06	.....	532 06
Lantern slides	.....	93 92	.....	93 92
Flax-seed	.....	76 80	.....	76 80
Meal bagging	.....	865 37	.....	665 37
Steel fish-plates	.....	1,136 39	.....	1,136 39
Second-hand card pins	.....	127 35	.....	127 35
Wearing apparel	.....	162 95	.....	162 95
Loom furnishings	.....	568 50	.....	568 50
Sewing-machines	.....	97 21	.....	97 21
Coals	.....	2,557 58	.....	2,557 58
Hackle machinery	.....	319 77	.....	319 77
Lap-robes	.....	6,304 39	.....	6,304 39
Comfit pans and frames	.....	2,624 78	.....	2,624 78
Jute carpet-bags	.....	1,642 33	.....	1,642 33
Oleomargarine	.....	39 90	.....	39 90
Cement	.....	174 62	.....	174 62
Total for 1882	7,604,358 64	7,188,818 87	1,172,793 77	757,254 00
Total for 1881	7,188,818 87	.....	.....	.....
Increase for 1882	415,539 77	.....	.....	.....
Net increase for 1882	.....	.....	415,539 77	.....

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Dundee, Scotland, to the United States, &c.—Continued.

CONSULAR AGENCY, ABERDEEN (A DEPENDENCY OF DUNDEE).

Articles.	Total for the year in United States gold.	Total for the previous year.	Increase.	Decrease.
Polished granite	$76,534 72	$69,722 03	$6,812 69	.....
Linen and jute manufactures	72,811 37	68,558 63	4,252 74	.....
Woolen manufactures	88,367 22	34,278 67	54,088 55	.....
Paper manufactures	14,931 58	16,822 50	.....	$1,890 92
Horses	4,272 51	.....	4,272 51	.....
Cattle	1,990 43	.....	1,990 43	.....
Clothes	58 32	.....	58 32	.....
Silver-plate	$93 99	.....	$93 99	.....
Photographic goods	786 26	$620 32	165 94	.....
Whisky	267 47	2,144 53	.....	$1,877 06
Canvas sails	325 84	.....	325 84	.....
Potatoes	27,418 11	.....	27,418 11	.....
Trees and shrubs	143 87	.....	143 87	.....
Twine	72 90	.....	72 90	.....
Harness blacking	493 59	.....	493 59	.....
Books	.....	224 28	.....	224 28
Total for 1882	288,568 18	192,370 96	100,189 48	3,992 26
Total for 1881	192,370 96	.....	.....	.....
Increase for 1882	96,197 22	.....	.....	.....
Decrease for 1882	.....	.....	.....	.....
Net increase for 1882	.....	.....	96,197 22	.....

ABSTRACT.

Total at Dundee for 1882	7,604,358 64	7,188,818 87	415,539 77	.....
Total at Aberdeen for 1882	288,568 18	192,370 96	96,197 22	.....
Total from this consular district for 1882	7,892,926 82	7,381,189 83	511,736 99	.....
Total from this consular district for 1881	7,381,189 83	.....	.....	.....
Increase for 1882	511,736 99	.....	.....	.....
Decrease for 1882	.....	.....	.....	.....
Net increase for 1882	.....	.....	511,736 99	.....

Comparative statement showing the value of declared exports for the years (ending 30th September) from the United States consulate, Dundee, Scotland, to the United States, during the years mentioned.

Years.	Total for the year in United States gold.	Total for the previous year.	Increase.	Decrease.
Total at Dundee for 1882	$7,604,358 64	$7,188,818 87	$415,539 77	.....
Total at Dundee for 1881	7,188,818 87	7,986,109 12	.....	$797,290 25
Total at Dundee for 1880	7,986,109 12	4,977,319 89	3,008,789 23	.....
Total at Dundee for 1879	4,977,319 89	4,524,756 36	452,563 53	.....
Total at Dundee for 1878	4,524,756 36	4,670,594 44	.....	145,838 08
Total at Dundee for 1877	4,670,594 44	5,208,440 10	.....	537,845 66
Total at Dundee for 1876	5,208,440 10	5,689,835 03	.....	481,394 93
Total at Dundee for 1875	5,689,835 03	6,349,817 56	.....	659,982 53
Total at Dundee for 1874	6,349,817 56	.....	.....	.....

From these statements it will be observed that in common jute burlaps there is a decrease this year as compared with last year. The wonder is that this decrease was not very much larger, considering the

miserable prices obtainable in New York (which caused shipments to be held back) during the greater part of the past year, till end of July last, when they advanced; 5¾ to 5⅞ cents per yard has been about the average ruling rates for standard 40-inch wide, 10½-ounce weight burlaps in New York for period from September, 1881, to July, 1882—certainly a low figure. It will also be noted that the total value of these exports from this district, which are principally jute goods, is well up upon the maximum year of 1880, and considerably ahead of last year.

It is understood, as a matter of fact, that the jute firms who have actually made money at their business in Dundee during these recent years of depression are the few who have combined making with a proportion of ordinary fabrics many specialties, as carpets, mattings, and other productions. The majority of manufacturers here make the common kind of jute burlaps, and compete keenly against each other with this article. Only a small number attempt to weave fancy goods out of all jute or half jute, although the field for such variations is large, and only opening up. In this respect Dundee is behind, and the United States making headway. Every year sees more and more jute yarn of all grades going to America, which is being used up there into all kinds of artistically woven goods of the most elegant designs. Patterns of these have been forwarded to Dundee accompanied with memorandums requesting quotations, and these samples have often to be returned with the remark that they could not be made here at all.

Years of bad trade have severely tried the commercial standing of Dundee jute manufacturers. The wealthy firms who have had large command of capital have been in a position to buy jute on the best terms, and so reimbursed their losses. Many of these firms made large fortunes during the period of the American civil war, and several succeeding years when prices were unprecedentedly high. As an example of the great fall in value of jute goods I give the following table, which shows the average value per yard of jute standard 10½ by 40 inch burlaps during the years since 1872:

	Pence prices per yard.
1872	4.22
1873	3.98
1874	3.57
1875	3.34
1876	3.09
1877	3.18
1878	3.10
1879	2.87
1880	2.95
1881	2.77

Many manufacturers who only commenced business within the past eight or ten years, and who thus did not have the opportunity of making some money during the better years of the trade, have had to succumb to the strain of bad times. This year there have been several failures, which will not yield much dividend for creditors when the estates are realized.

The Barrow Jute Manufacturing Company, a large limited liability concern, has been a most unprofitable speculation for its shareholders; so, also, has been the Aberdeen Jute Manufacturing Company. Both these companies have had to reduce their capital and to put their financial arrangements on a very unsatisfactory basis for the proprietors this year.

On the 26th of July last I had the honor of forwarding to your department a Report on the Jute, Cotton, and Woolen Industries of Scot-

land, in which there was a table showing the wages* paid to jute workers. As these wages remain unaltered since then, I beg to refer you to said table. It may be mentioned, however, that these employés in some of the large jute works in this town benefit by a plan of insurance, the advantages of which are considerable. Those earning from $4 to $7 per week pay 2 cents per month, and those earning under $4 per week 1 cent per month. In return, in the event of accidents happening, for which the mill-owner is not liable under the "employers' liability act," compensation is given on a very liberal scale.

In one place, a country district around Dundee, some manufacturers of jute paddings and similar goods have, for want of orders, been compelled to run their works on short time during part of the past year. No other mill-owners in Dundee or the neighborhood have adopted this policy.

The United States appraisers at New York and Boston have been by this office furnished regularly every week with the prices for jute goods; the former getting The Dundee Prices Current and Trade Report and Dundee Advertiser sent to them. Both of these papers contain reliable quotations for jute and linen goods, and very full intelligence regarding the Dundee trade.

Manufacturers here are now in hopes that the jute trade has taken a turn for the better. They think that this year's abundant grain crop in America, together with the good harvest throughout Great Britain, will cause increased consumption of jute goods and tend to keep up prices. Taking these facts into consideration and the likelihood of having a large supply of good and cheap jute, they feel warranted in anticipating more favorable times, and regard the future prospects as encouraging.

WILLARD B. WELLS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dundee, October 10, 1882.

PRODUCTS AND INDUSTRIES OF CEYLON.

REPORT BY CONSUL MOREY.

AGRICULTURE.

Notwithstanding the fairly successful introduction of new products, agriculture has languished during the year now under report.

There was a diminution in coffee from the previous year's crop of 24,603,488 pounds, owing to an inferior yield generally, and to the abandonment of many coffee estates on account of their ceasing to be regarded as paying properties. Governor Longden, in his address when opening the present session of the legislative council, pointed out that these causes were coincident with a greatly diminished use of imported manure, the quantity of which had fallen from 2,614,019 rupees in value, in 1877, to 375,883 rupees, in 1881; remarking that however unavoidable this contraction of importation may have been, it is hardly doubtful that the effect has been to lessen production.

Against the falling off in coffee there was a considerable gain in cin-

* See Consular Report for October, No. 24, page 561.

chona, which product is rapidly coming into importance, there being (according to the reliable estimates of the editors of the Colombo Observer newspaper and their useful monthly publication, the Tropical Agriculturist) about 50,000 acres of that valuable product now under cultivation in the island, besides tea, 15,000 acres; cocoa, 8,000 acres; cardamoms, 3,000 acres; Liberian coffee, 7,000 acres; say, less than 100,000 acres of new products almost in their infancy, to replace the loss of at least 300,000 acres of Arabica coffee land abandoned during the last five years; the all-absorbing problem now being, can these new industries effectually supply the place of a waning coffee enterprise? These industries are mostly all of private European introduction, native agriculture being confined to indigenous productions. In addition to them government supports three botanical gardens, devoted solely to the propagation of rare and useful agricultural products; and, as it may prove interesting, I forward Exhibit A, the latest report by Dr. Trimen, the gentleman who ably directs these useful and interesting establishments.

MANUFACTURES.

As often mentioned in my previous reports, the manufactures here are principally cocoanut and essential oils, coir ropes and mats, a few cotton fabrics, carriages and furniture for local use, jewelry, and I may now add an establishment is in process of erection * for the manufacture of quinine. Formerly an excellent and very serviceable description of palm-leaf hats, constructed from a tough weed called "India cola," were made and shipped abroad in considerable numbers; but latterly there seems to have been no demand for them outside of the island, and their manufacture has about ceased.

MINES.

There was some excitement in the early part of the year over the discovery of supposed rich auriferous deposits in several inland districts. Gold had for centuries been known to exist in small quantities in various parts of the island, but now, it was asserted, a regular bonanza had been found. There is no truth in it, however, I believe; accordingly, I can only re-enumerate the old catalogue of precious stones, plumbago, and iron, as mining industries; the latter metal being not plentiful, though of excellent quality.

FISHERIES.

The waters of the sea around Ceylon abound with excellent fish, so likewise do the lakes and rivers. The catch, however, is comparatively very small, and the price of fresh fish in the market always dear; hundreds of tons of the salted article are imported yearly from abroad, very little of which would be considered edible by Europeans.

The government exercise no control whatever over the industry, and derive no revenue from it. The fishing for pearls, however, is a monopoly, from which government sometimes realizes as high as $300,000 per annum, as was notably the case last year.

FORESTS.

Again abstracting from the governor's address, the forests, which are extensive and abounding in valuable timber, have been so managed or

* The project is now, I hear, abandoned.

mismanaged, in separate patches by different government agents, who frequently worked against each other, that many evils have arisen, and much loss of revenue occurred, notwithstanding the abundance of durable timber which they contain. In fact it has hitherto been found impracticable to supply from them more than insignificant quantities of even railroad sleepers for the local lines, the moiety of that commodity being still imported from Norway. With a view to obtain necessary information upon the subject of forest utilization, application was made to the Indian Government, who detached one of their officers, Mr. Vincent, of the Indian forest department, to visit Ceylon and report upon its forests, and that gentleman is still engaged upon the task. When his report is published, I shall forward a copy of it to the Department.

COMMERCE.

The total number and tonnage of the shipping entering and clearing from all ports during the year was as follows: Inward, 3,308 steamers and sailing vessels, aggregating 1,551,466 tons; and 3,310 steamers and sailing vessels outward, aggregating 1,548,662 tons; total, 6,618 craft and 3,100,128 tons, showing a decrease in numbers from last year of 633 steamers and sailing vessels, but an increase in tonnage of 193,360 tons, owing obviously to a falling off in the number of sailing vessels and an increase both in the number and size of the steamers. The proportions of the latter to the former are, so far as I have been able to compute them, 1,500 steamers aggregating 2,500,000 tons, to 4,118 sailing vessels aggregating 600,128 tons. These represented all the principal nationalities of the earth, and came from nearly every country in the world except the United States; our flag having been borne by only one of them, viz, the barkentine Eyvor of 580 tons, which came from Bushire and loaded for New York. I am glad to be able to add, however, that before the end of the fiscal year, two other American ships arrived and loaded for home.

IMPORTS.

The imports for the year amounted to 378,535 tons, valued at $21,569,427; as usual, none of them appear in the record as coming from the United States. It is satisfactory to know, however, that the United States did furnish indirectly a considerable portion of those goods, and that they found comparatively a ready sale. In fact, I hear of orders constantly going forward to the United States, especially for pumps, tobacco, canned goods, and weighing machines; am informed by one of the partners of the enterprising firm of John Walker & Co. that they have arranged for a cargo of kerosene oil and pine lumber to be sent to them direct from New York. This transaction will probably lead to others in the same direction, and considering the considerable place our products have found here lately, despite much detraction, and at a period of great financial depression, I feel encouraged to look forward to a not far distant time when the consular reports will chronicle a large amount of reciprocal trade between the United States and this country.

EXPORTS.

The exports for the year amounted to 100,941 tons, valued at $18,094,318, which is a decrease of $7,100,787 from those of 1880, a falling off attributable principally to the diminished production of coffee; the shipments of that article having only amounted to $10,704,442, whereas in

1880 they were valued at $16,759,981. There was also a decrease of nearly a million dollars in the value of cocoanut oil shipped in 1881 from the shipments of 1880, whereas, in the other principal articles of export, such as cinnamon, coir, cinchona, and plumbago, there was a considerable increase, the last-named article having reached the figures of about one and one-quarter of a million dollars, a moiety of the total shipments being for the United States.

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

The exports to the United States amounted to $1,248,387, calculated at two rupees to the dollar, and was in excess of that of the previous year by the balance sum of $91,054; $17,309 of this amount was from the new product cinchona, which now appears for the first time in these consular returns. There was a large decrease in coffee, coir, tea, and timber, but an increase in cocoanut oil, essential oils, cinnamon, and plumbago. It is gratifying to know that at least one American ship was engaged in transporting this produce, and the returns of next year will contain the statistics of at least three ships, engaged in this trade, carrying our flag.

REVENUE.

The revenue for the year from customs duties on imports, warehouse rents, and export duty on plumbago amounted to $1,469,229, and from other sources to $5,374,017, total $6,843,246. Nearly $300,000 of this was from the yield of the pearl fishery, which came in good time to meet in some measure the lamentable falling off in other directions, notably the undernoted deficiencies, viz, grain tax, $82,118; stamps, $36,468; railroad receipts, $161,955—the latter having been actually less than the receipts of any previous year since 1874, although 46 additional miles of permanent way have been opened since that period.

The fall in the revenue, which since 1877 has been continuous, was, in 1881, $81,317 below that of 1880, and the fact that the expenditure for the year, by the exercise of a wise economy, was so curtailed, apparently without affecting at all the efficiency of any of the various branches of government, that a balance of $76,616 remained unexpended at the end of the year.

RAILROADS.

No new lines of railroad have been completed nor projected during the year, but work has progressed fairly upon the "Nana Oya" extension, which probably will be open for traffic in 1885. In the mean time a portion of the European public is much exercised at what they are pleased to term the apathy of the present governor in declining to advocate and promote the immediate construction of another extension of 26 miles to tap the Happutella coffee district.

Possibly the governor has observed how every locality in Ceylon, heretofore penetrated or even tapped by a railroad line, has almost immediately after lost its character as a coffee-producing district; and, noting this fact (for unfortunately it is a fact), has wisely refrained from being instrumental in furthering that, perhaps, fatal final extension of the iron rails which, however blatantly advocated by some people, might nevertheless plunge Happutella, now about the only real coffee district in the island, into that unfortunate category already containing such names as Kandy, Gampola, Pussellawa, Dolasbage, Nawalapetiya, Dim-

bulla, and Dickoya—in short, comprising every locality known to coffee production in Ceylon through which or near to which the iron horse has found its way. Neither would it be singular if the governor had come to regard as mixed blessing the existing railroads, built at fancy prices on borrowed capital, by which principally the colony is saddled with its present debt of about $15,000,000, double the amount in fact it ever ought to be asked to carry for such a purpose; more especially as there is not adequate employment for the lines, and the moiety of their cost having been spent in England (where it was borrowed) for plant, &c., has to be repaid by the colony with interest and at such ruinous rates of exchange as must denude the country of its circulating treasure and keep the colony in a state of impecuniosity.

COMMERCIAL YEAR.

The commercial year closes in Ceylon on the 30th of September. Accordingly, last Saturday was the end of season 1881–'82.

An authority says there were about 560,000 cwts. of coffee, 3,000,000 pounds of cinchona, and 600,000 pounds of tea exported, and these figures, though approximate, are probably very nearly true.

CONDITION OF CONSULAR AGENCIES.

I have much pleasure in reporting a decided improvement in the management of the Point de Galle agency during the year. At this present time of writing there is a considerable enhancement in the export trade of that place with the United States, several ships having taken in part of their cargoes there, hitherto a most unusual occurrence. This has mostly happened since the 30th of June, however, and will therefore find a more fitting record in next year's report.

At the Jaffna Agency there has been no business whatever, and it would appear at present that the incident of such a large number of American ships visiting that port the year before the agency was established was purely spasmodic.

W. MOREY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Coquimbo, Ceylon, June 30, 1882.

TRADE AND INDUSTRIES OF HAMILTON.

REPORT BY CONSUL LELAND.

The city of Hamilton is often called "The Birmingham of Canada," owing to the magnitude and extent of its manufacturing establishments. The city might truly be called a *hive of industry.* Prosperity has attended the various branches of trade carried on in Hamilton during the year 1882.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The total value of imports from all countries to the port of Hamilton for the year ending June 30, 1882, was $4,520,000, upon which there were duties amounting to $861,600 collected. The total value of exports

to the United States alone from the port of Hamilton for the year ending June 30, 1882, was $1,212,000. Total value of exports from the district of Hamilton to the United States for the year ending September 30, 1882, was $3,332,203.46.

GENERAL TRADE FOR 1882.

The following is a general statement of the aggregate wholesale trade in the leading branches of business in Hamilton for the year 1882:

Dry goods (wholesale)	$1,500,000
Clothing (wholesale)	1,600,000
Groceries (wholesale)	4,000,000
Boots and shoes	1,500,000
Wool (3,000,000 pounds)	800,000
Hardware (wholesale)	3,300,000
Lumber (25,000,000 feet)	350,000
Drugs and medicines	600,000

WORKING UP THEIR OWN INTERESTS.

Our Canadian neighbors are putting forth herculean efforts to set forth their own resources, with the view of inducing a larger immigration to Canada from Europe than has hitherto been realized.

Canadian emigration agents are in several countries in Europe, setting forth the resources of the northwest territory of Manitoba. The Canadian authorities send over consignments of wheat and other small grains raised in Manitoba; also, specimens of soils, grasses, &c., intended for exhibition in the Royal Agricultural Exposition in England, and in other agricultural exhibits, at the boards of trade of the large European cities, &c. These specimens of soils have been taken at intervals of twenty miles apart from the eastern boundary of Manitoba to the Rocky Mountains, embracing an area of over twelve hundred miles. The people of Canada look forward confidently to the time when this great area of twelve hundred miles in length will become a vast wheat-growing region, which Canadians anticipate will be the largest, most populous, and most valuable province of the British Empire upon the western hemisphere. The enterprise and energy of Canadians is now stimulating them to emulate the United States in our plans and methods to supply the foreign markets of the outside world.

THE STOVE TRADE.

The manufacture of stoves is the leading industry of Hamilton. From careful estimates I learn that $900,000 of capital is employed in the business; constant employment is given to from 600 to 700 men. Nine thousand tons of iron were used in the business during the past year, and nearly 25,000 stoves were manufactured, which were sent to every part of the Dominion, including Manitoba and British Columbia.

IMMIGRATION INTO ONTARIO AND MANITOBA.

There have arrived at the port of Hamilton during the year ending September 30, 1882, from European countries, 8,202 immigrants, via the ports of Montreal and New York. Of this number, 5,421 have settled in the province of Ontario, and 2,771 have gone to the northwestern province of Manitoba.

SMALL GRAINS IN ONTARIO.

The yield of small grains has been abundant this year. From careful estimates and reliable information I place the aggregate yield of small grains in the province of Ontario as follows:

	Bushels.
Wheat	30,783,683
Oats	40,000,000
Barley	20,000,000
Pease	10,000,000

These are the principal cereals raised in Ontario. I estimate the wool clip for Ontario at five and a half million pounds.

SOUTHERN ONTARIO HARVEST.

The yield of small grains in Southern Ontario in the harvest of 1882 has been excellent, in fact more than an average crop.

I here give the average yield of grain per acre in the rich farming districts in the vicinity of Hamilton:

	Bushels.
Wheat (winter)	25 to 30
Wheat (spring)	20 to 25
Barley	30 to 35
Oats	30 to 40
Pease	25 to 30
Rye	15 to 20
Potatoes	90 to 100
Corn (ears)	80 to 100

Wheat is an excellent quality; barley, fairly good, but somewhat discolored; oats, No. 1; potatoes, excellent yield and fine quality; corn, average crop. The total yield of the leading cereals raised in Ontario this year, based upon careful estimates, is about as follows:

	Bushels.
Wheat (winter)	32,000,000
Wheat (spring)	9,300,000
Barley	23,500,000
Oats	53,000,000
Pease	11,400,000

IMPORTS INTO ONTARIO.

Of the $33,167,327 in value of merchandise imported into Ontario during the past year, $17,466,184 in value were from the United States, being an increase of exports from the United States of over three million dollars in value over the imports into Ontario from the United States in 1880. This increase on the part of American exporters in the face of a high, stringent, and vigorously enforced tariff imposed by the Canadian Government on all classes of American goods, shows the enterprise and push of our exporters in the United States.

Property values, amount of taxes, and population of Hamilton, 1881.

Real property	$12,969,040
Personal property	2,680,960
Total	15,650,000
Amount raised for schools	62,600
Total taxes	297,350

Rate of taxation, 19 mills.

Total population of city, 36,846; increase in a year, 1,487; increase in real and personal property in the city in a year, $942,215.

STOCK-RAISING IN ONTARIO.

As the United States furnishes an extensive market for horses and cattle raised in Ontario (the value of horses and cattle shipped from Hamilton consular district alone during the past year being over $650,000), some facts in reference to stock-raising in Ontario will be of interest and value to farmers and business men in the United States. From a careful estimate it is believed that there are 517,000 horses in the province of Ontario, of which number 72,000 are breeding mares and 34,000 are work-horses. There are in the province of Ontario over 1,600,000 head of cattle, of which number nearly 700,000 are milch cows, 300,000 head are store cattle, and 24,000 head are thoroughbreds. There are in the province of Ontario 2,000,000 head of sheep, of which number over 1,600,000 head are coarse-wooled, and about 325,000 head fine-wooled. There are about 850,000 head of swine in the province of Ontario. A fine market is found for great numbers of these animals in the cities of Buffalo, Rochester, New York, &c.

The following are the inland revenue statistics for the division of Hamilton during the fiscal year commencing October 1, 1881, ending September 30, 1882, showing the excise goods manufactured, the raw material from which produced, and the excise goods exported to the United States:

TOBACCO.

	Pounds.
Raw leaf used	1,177,600
Cavendish tobacco produced	803,119
Cigars	53,584

MALT.

	Pounds.
Barley used	24,204,326
Malt produced	27,761,622

BONDED MANUFACTURES.

	Imperial gallons.
Spirits produced	11,956
Spirits used	10,254
Naphtha used	1,224
Vinegar produced	45,292
Methylated spirits	11,478

BEER AND ALE.

Malt used	pounds..	1,505,479
Beer and ale produced	gallons..	593,385

EXPORTED TO THE UNITED STATES.

Raw leaf-tobacco, cuttings, and stems, chiefly in bond to New York; there rewarehoused and exported to Bremen, Germany, Gibraltar, &c.: Cuttings, 40,222 pounds; stems, 228,256 pounds.

Malt exported to the United States, 2,445,029 pounds.

The raw leaf-tobacco used as above is imported from the United States.

No Canadian raw leaf was used during the above fiscal year.

IMPORTS—PORT OF HAMILTON.

Memorandum showing the value of goods imported and entered for consumption at the port of Hamilton, showing also the duties collected thereon, during the year ending June 30, 1882.

Dutiable goods.	Imports.	Consumption.	Duty.
Manufactures of—			
Cotton	$349, 824	$339, 724	$55, 822
Iron and steel	750, 500	746, 264	149, 090
Silks	73, 192	73, 192	17, 497
Woolens	340, 113	330, 113	103, 023
Wines and spirits	27, 000	28, 482	24, 309
Sugar	93, 842	110, 521	55, 010
Tea	1, 151, 566	246, 210	51, 176
Dutiable articles	810, 867	1, 694, 328	405, 675
Leaf-tobacco	151, 957	161, 976	(*)
Total	3, 748, 861	3, 731, 110	861, 602

* Duty on leaf-tobacco collected by the Excise Department.

FREE GOODS IMPORTED.

	Imports.	Consumption.
The mine	$14, 434	$14, 434
The fisheries	27, 678	27, 678
The forest	32, 588	32, 588
Animals and their produce	234, 110	234, 110
Agricultural products	37, 217	37, 217
Manufactured articles	226, 926	226, 926
Miscellaneous	198, 190	198, 190
Total	771, 143	771, 143

GREAT WESTERN RAILWAY OF CANADA.

Tons of freight and live stock passing over International Bridge for the year ending July 31, 1882.

Months.	Freight.			Live stock.	
	East.	West.	Total.	East.	Total.
1881.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
August	19, 295	17, 822	37, 117	5, 755	5, 755
September	16, 823	20, 819	37, 642	2, 755	2, 755
October	26 097	19, 291	45, 388	4, 202	4, 202
November	27, 750	19, 392	47, 142	3, 734	3, 734
December	23, 870	24, 215	48, 085	3, 461	3, 461
1882.					
January	23, 013	21, 467	44, 480	6, 778	6, 778
February	18, 156	15, 969	34, 125	5, 360	5, 360
March	16, 743	13, 823	30, 566	4, 602	4, 602
April	12, 614	13, 818	26, 432	5, 903	5, 903
May	9, 563	14, 921	24, 484	3, 211	3, 211
June	5, 926	17, 782	23, 708	2, 400	2, 400
July	9, 634	18, 868	28, 502	3, 253	3, 253
Total	209, 484	218, 187	427, 671	51, 414	51, 414

Tons of freight and live stock passing over Suspension Bridge for year ending July 31, 1882.

Months.	Freight.			Live stock.	
	East.	West.	Total.	East.	Total.
1882.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
August	59, 681	35, 450	95, 131	1, 159	1, 159
September	70, 670	48, 380	119, 050	1, 146	1, 146
October	82, 545	43, 353	125, 898	1, 471	1, 471
November	86, 823	46, 445	133, 268	2, 881	2, 881
December	80, 498	53, 224	133, 722	1, 135	1, 135
1882.					
January	98, 658	41, 074	139, 732	520	520
February	74, 818	28, 304	103, 122	415	415
March	57, 438	36, 769	94, 207	783	783
April	51, 877	39, 324	91, 201	660	660
May	35, 176	34, 978	70, 154	538	538
June	37, 539	45, 390	82, 929	428	428
July	39, 929	57, 159	97, 088	344	344
Total	775, 652	509, 850	1, 285, 502	11, 480	11, 480

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Hamilton for the year ending September 30, 1882.

From—	ENTERED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	*Tons.*	*No.*	*Tons.*	*No.*	*Tons.*
ited States and Canada	37	12, 697	67	12, 397	104	25, 094

To—	CLEARED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	*Tons.*	*No.*	*Tons.*	*No.*	*Tons.*
United States and Canada	37	12, 697	67	12, 397	104	25, 094

Several of the vessels whose actual tonnage is given above are entered and cleared many times during the year, the number being as follows: Total entries, 546; departures, 546.

FRANK LELAND,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hamilton, Ontario, October 31, 1882.

TARIFF REVISION.

EXTRACT FROM THE ANNUAL REPORT OF CONSUL-GENERAL MERRITT, OF LONDON.

The discussion in Congress, pending the passage of the bill authorizing the appointment of a Commission for the revision of the tariff, excited a good deal of interest in Great Britain, and in other countries having commercial relations with the United States. This was clearly shown by means of a general discussion of the matter, at the time, in

the newspaper press of these countries. The prevailing opinion in Great Britain, and that, too, supported by the present cabinet, is strongly in favor of free trade. There are, however, a considerable number of influential manufacturers who claim to be protectionists, and favor what they call "fair trade." Nevertheless, all parties appear to be in perfect accord as regards one thing, to wit, opposition to a protective tariff in the United States.

In the matter of the proposed revision of the tariff laws, it will not, perhaps, be out of place for me to make the following suggestions:

1. Whenever practicable, duties should be made simple and specific, and adjusted so as to discriminate in favor of American labor.

2. All articles, the duties upon which are comparatively small, should be put upon the free list.

3. Original works of art, antiques, curiosities, and, generally speaking, all collections illustrating the natural sciences, should be admitted free of duty.

4. Still further, in the interest of a general educational development, whether in the matter of schools, colleges, or private individuals, I recommend that, for their own use, all text books and maps, charts, models, &c., for scientific and professional needs, as also all scientific and professional apparatus and instruments, be placed upon the free list.

5. In so far as it is practicable, in the revision of the tariff laws, an especial end in view should be the protection of new, important, and yet struggling industries—industries which, once thoroughly rooted, would be able in a few years, unprotected, to hold their own against the world. To this end, all raw material entering into such struggling, manufacturing industries should be admitted free, or at least at a very low rate of duty. Specific provision should be made determining in what condition the material or merchandise shall be, in order to be classified as "raw material."

6. A simplification of the customs laws is desirable so as to avoid, as much as possible, their misconstruction and consequent litigation, as also to relieve merchants from annoying delays in making entry of their goods. Proper invoices of merchandise on the free list, with bills of lading, when presented by the consignee, if the owner, or by any person to whom they may have been regularly transferred in the ordinary course of business, should be accepted by the customs authorities, and the delivery of the merchandise covered by such papers should be without cause of action as against the collector. Provision should be made so that, in case of the delivery of goods before their quantities or values have been ascertained and returned to the custom-house, in addition to duty, an adequate percentage upon the entered value shall be deposited until the final liquidation of the invoice.

7. The most equitable basis for fixing values upon merchandise subject to ad valorem rates of duty would be the average wholesale price, in bond, at the principal ports of entry in the United States; such valuations, in cases of disagreement, to be determined, on appeal, by a board of general appraisers, to consist of five members, three to be located on the Atlantic seaboard, one on the Pacific, and one in the interior. The adoption of home valuations would do away with the necessity for investigations as to the current market values of the merchandise in the country from whence it was imported. These market values, undergoing constant changes, are, other things equal, not the same in different countries, and, under the most favorable conditions, are difficult for con-

sular officers, special agents of the Treasury Department, or custom-house appraisers to determine. It is, moreover, especially difficult to ascertain the commissions, and other proper charges, which, under existing laws, are to be added to the market prices in order to establish dutiable values. Still further, by means of home valuation, the necessity for the production of consular authentications of invoices would be obviated.

8. Generally speaking, in the interest of the common weal, it is desirable that the tariff be so adjusted, and such regulations in connection therewith be adopted, as shall cause thereafter, on the part of the government, the smallest possible amount of friction with and annoyance to the business community. The imposition of taxes upon the commercial business of the country will never be popular with those upon whom, in the first instance, the burden directly falls. It would, therefore, seem to be the part of wisdom for legislation to so simplify and adjust these taxes, and the rules and regulations enforcing their collection, as to insure the acquiescence if not the approval of the great mass of the people.

Every government, administered so as to conserve the real well-being and permanent prosperity of its people as a whole, must specially foster and sustain, amongst its varied industries, agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial, those which are a prime necessity to the greatest number, whenever it has become evident that private enterprise and capital are alone unable to establish and maintain them. This fostering and sustaining on the part of the government must be done by means of protection against foreign competition on the one hand, or by means of direct support on the other.

Other things equal, the establishment of nearly every kind of manufacture in a new and growing country, ill-provided with skilled labor, effective machinery, and lines of cheap transportation, involves, at the outset and thereafter, a large expenditure of money. A considerable period of time must, therefore, necessarily elapse before an adequate return for such outlay can be looked for; in other words, before any enterprise so established can become self-supporting. Nevertheless if, during the infancy of such enterprises, prices to the consumer have been enhanced, with their growth the raw hand will become the skilled laborer, motive power and machinery will have been rendered more effective, and the cheapest avenues for home and export sale and trade opened up, until, finally without aid or protection, these industries are permanently established with the world's market at their command. Home competition and rapid production naturally following, the cost of manufacture and price to the consumer gradually diminish, until the lowest limit is reached.

Still further, it must also be conceded that the incidental and indirect advantages to communities in which growing industries are located must be very great. They stimulate general business by providing employment for labor in itself unskilled; they furnish an incentive to creative genius in the matter of mechanical and physical invention and discovery; they open up new thoroughfares; they create local markets for agricultural products; they form nuclei for large retail commercial transactions; they are sources of largely increased incomes to the various lines of local transportation of the country; in a word, they are the roots of a home civilization which, carefully tended, deepen and broaden until they permeate with their beneficent influence all classes of the community, and imbue them with the vigor and richness of permanent, healthy, and intelligent life.

This principle of protecting struggling industries should, moreover, be applied particularly to our mercantile marine, which, admittedly, on all hands, is in great need of encouragement and support, not only on account of its importance in itself as regards our special commercial interests, but also in order that, in a general sense, we may, as a people, make ourselves independent of the varied policies, caprices, and jealousies of foreign nationalities.

EDWIN A. MERRITT,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
London, November 10, 1882.

BRITISH CIVIL SERVICE.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL MERRITT, OF LONDON.

The civil-service system of Great Britain, as now established, is a compromise between the old or patronage and the purely competitive or "merit system" as applied to certain classes. The latter is the system advocated by the leaders of civil-service reform, and has been to some extent adopted by executive authority in the United States. In the English system the lower grades only, to wit, those comprising positions commanding less than £400 each per annum, are covered by the rules, while all positions commanding more than that in the home and all in the foreign service continue, as under the old or patronage system, to be filled by the heads of departments or by the Crown. There does not, however, appear to be many or serious complaints as to the manner in which this patronage is dispensed.

It seems that, as a general rule, the friends of the representative men of both parties occupy these positions, and that tenure of office is more permanent in consequence. It is probable, therefore, that a considerable period of time will elapse before these higher or representative positions will be brought under the control of the competitive system. I am, however, clearly of the opinion that patronage, as understood in the United States, has practically ceased to be an important element in political contests between the great parties of this country, and affords no special assistance to candidates seeking the suffrages of the people of Great Britain.

The rules and regulations now in force have been adopted and amended, from time to time, by "orders in council," and enforced by a civil-service commission. The lower grades referred to are divided into classes or groups. Persons having passed examination and taken service in a particular class or group cannot, as a rule, be promoted into another or higher class or group. In case of the discontinuance of a position transfer can only be made by executive order, of which the commissioners shall be advised.

Rule 13 of "orders in council" provides that salaries of men clerks in the lower division shall commence at £80 per annum, and increase by triennial increments of £15 to £200; provided also that in any office in which a regular attendance of seven hours a day is required the commencing salary may be £95 and the maximum £250.

Rule 15 provides that the salary of boy clerks between the ages of 15 and 17 years shall begin at fourteen shillings per week, and shall rise by an increment of one shilling per week per annum as long as they

may be employed; their period of service, however, to terminate at the age of 19 years.

Rule 18 provides that promotion from the lower to the higher division of the service shall not be made without a special certificate from the civil-service commissioners, to be granted exceptionally, after not less than ten years' service, upon a special recommendation from the head of the department and the assent of the treasury.

Subsequently, a new grade of open competition was established, called the "new higher division." The salaries in this grade commence at £100 and rise by triennial increments to £400 per annum. To this a discretionary amount, not exceeding £200 per annum, may be added in exceptional cases.

I may remark here that the report of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton to President Hayes, which was transmitted by the latter to the Forty-sixth Congress of the United States, gives a complete history of the English civil service from an early date up to and including the adoption of the "new system," as the competitive one is called. This system, now under consideration, has, in so far as it has been put into practice, met with, and continues to meet, the approval of the great majority of the English people. The criticisms which reach the public eye and ear are mainly leveled at civil-list pensions, especially those of a hereditary character. Those for instance which are paid to the Duke of Marlborough, the Duke of Schonberg, the Earl of Kinnout, and the heirs of William Penn would seem to give point to these criticisms. To use the words of a recent writer on this subject, there are many persons still living and enjoying pensions granted them in the reigns of George III, George IV, and William IV, while there are also payments to persons who suffered from the Irish rebellion of 1798. Nearly all pensions embraced in these lists would be resisted by the people, were the attempt to be made to create them at the present time.

The British system of civil service is based upon the principle of life tenure, a pension being allowed whenever the incumbent becomes incapacitated for service, or whenever a discontinuance of the position to which he may have been appointed may become necessary. A special allowance may, if deemed advisable, be made as an equivalent of the pension. In so far as compensation is concerned, no distinction is made, in the ordinary course, in the same grade or group; increase of salary depending, unfortunately, in no measure upon exceptional talent and ability, but, on the other hand, entirely upon the time of service, as prescribed in the rules. This system of pensions grew, naturally, out of the old and vicious system in which leaders of political parties made special provision, from the public treasury, for the support of their retainers and favorites, but is now regulated with greater regard to the public interest.

In contradistinction to this once pernicious system of general pensions, originating not so much in justice as favoritism, it will probably be conceded that the genius of republican institutions is for governments to fully compensate their public servants for services rendered by means of befitting salaries, rather than, by a contrary course, to incur obligations that can be canceled only by pensions or gratuities otherwise unnecessary. More especially will this concession be granted when the *moral effect* upon public servants who are awaiting the day to be pensioned off is considered. Their thoughts diverted to the future, they reflect not upon the duties of to-day; their only incentive to work is to live; the public weal is lost to view; they turn to drones, and government interests suffer.

There is, moreover, another light in which this question of general pensions should be viewed when considered in reference to its adaptation to the civil service of the United States. Our institutions are all free. For many decades to come there will be a lack rather than a surplus of population. As a natural sequence to these conditions there is, and will continue to be, in all the varied departments of professional, commercial, and industrial life, a demand for workers and leaders. It becomes, therefore, a matter of great moment as to what extent the young men of our country should be induced, merely by the lure of permanency and pensions in later years, to turn aside from careers in which the highest and best of the world's prizes are open to competition, in which industry, skill, and energy usually meet with quick and substantial rewards, in order to enter the tread-mill routine of clerical service, and pass their lives, if not on the sharp edge of poverty, at the best only in a threadbare dignity, struggling for the unattainable.

But, on the other hand, it may be noted that, in general, the right and duty of every government should be fully recognized to provide for the proper maintenance or support of those of its employés, civil as well as military, who, by means of fortuitous circumstances in the line of duty, have become disabled or incapacitated for labor; a function which, on the part of the Government of the United States, has, in case of the Army and Navy, been very liberally exercised. Still further, there is, in my view, no question as to the right and duty of our government to extend its system of special pensions so as to reach all branches of the public service in connection with which there are peculiar hazards to life, limb, and health to be run, as, for instance, that of the Life-Saving Service now in operation upon our seaboard.

Moreover, the way should be open for diplomatic and consular officers to become recipients of pensions in especial cases, such for example as long periods of service in foreign countries, where their health may have become permanently impaired, or when, by means of such long absences, they may have been left by the business world at home so far behind as to find, on their return, that they are, so to speak, hardly more than strangers in a strange land.

Finally, in any official branch of our government, to which no pension rules may apply, whenever exceptionally valuable services have been rendered, hardships endured, or losses incurred in the way of duty, the attention of Congress should be called thereto, and fitting rewards bestowed.

In the matter of discipline administered to government employés, who are in the habit of permitting themselves to fall into the rut of pecuniary troubles, I cannot do better than to quote, in full, the text of the British treasury minute, issued November 30, 1868. It reads as follows:

1. That it is to be understood that serious pecuniary embarrassment, from whatever cause, must be regarded as a circumstance which necessarily has the effect of impairing the efficiency of a public servant, and of rendering him less valuable than he would otherwise be.

2. That such embarrassment, if occasioned by imprudence or other reprehensible cause, will be held to be an offense, as affecting the respectability of the service and the trustworthiness of the individual; any person who has so conducted himself will be considered to have forfeited that honorable position in the service which is necessary to give him a claim to promotion or increase of salary from length of service; and these benefits will not be permitted to accrue to him again until he shall have relieved himself from the discredit of such a position. Aggravated cases of this description will be noticed whenever they become known; and such measures will be taken, either in the manner above adverted to, or in a manner more summary and severe, as the circumstances may appear to deserve.

3. That the mere fact, under whatever plea, of becoming a party to accommodation bills, whether for his own purposes or for another person, and whether resulting in pecuniary embarrassment or not, will subject a civil servant to the consequences prescribed in the preceding paragraph.

There is no question but that the enforcement of the above rules in the civil-service practice of Great Britain has had a most salutary influence, not only directly, upon the employés themselves, but also indirectly, upon the respectability and dignity of the service. Their application to the civil service of the United States would undoubtedly be productive of equally beneficial results. They are rules that ought not to be confined, in their application, simply to the lower grades of especial departments, but, on the contrary, should extend alike over all grades and allgdepartments of the government service. The application of disciplinary rules of the above character to the civil service of the United States is especially necessary in the case of officials in foreign countries where the reprehensible acts of a public officer may become a reproach, not only to himself, to the branch of the service to which he may belong, but also to the respectability and worthiness of his country's name.

Although not viewing with especial favor, under existing conditions, the idea of a system of civil service for the United States in which the principles of life tenure and general pensions are presumed to be essentially requisite to the end that such system may prove an eminent success in the matter of economic progress and judicious reform, I would, nevertheless, strongly advocate: first, a limited tenure of office for all those representative positions to the incumbents of which the higher class of salaries are paid; the salaries themselves to be adjusted according to the importance or responsibility attached to the respective positions. Secondly, in reference to the lower or merely clerical positions, the incumbents of which are engaged simply in the routine work of the service, I should advocate tenure of office during good behavior, subordinated, however, to periodical examinations, say once every four or five years, in which the character, deportment, tact, mental qualifications, and practical skill of the employès would come in review before an independent commission appointed for that purpose; the commission, in the end, reporting either to the heads of departments or to the President, as may be considered most advisable.

By means of the application of these principles, which in case of the lower grades might, in point of fact, often amount, practically, to life tenure, an incentive would be given to the employés, not only to do their work with fidelity and zeal, but also to improve themselves in whatever might attach to the various duties they would be called upon to perform. Moreover, in the lower grades, in case of retention in office or necessary removal for cause, the chiefs or heads of departments would be, other things equal, independent of responsibility, subject neither to commendation on the one hand nor censure on the other.

In conclusion, I may remark that the application in practice of these principles, to wit, of limited and qualified tenure, as above indicated, together with that of open competition for admittance to and promotion in all grades and departments, would seem to me to fulfil the conditions required, at the present time, in the general adoption of a civil-service system in the United States.

EDWIN A. MERRITT,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
London, November 10, 1882.

A TOUR THROUGH NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

I have the honor to report my return from a tour through the colony of New Zealand. The purpose of my visit was to place the consular agencies within my jurisdiction in better working order than they have been heretofore, and at the same time to collect as much information as I possibly could in regard to the condition and the material resources of the country, with the view of studying the wants of the people, and of taking into consideration the best means for the enlargement of the trade and commerce between this colony and the United States. I was everywhere well received. My arrival at each city along the route was telegraphed to the associated press, and the people vied with one another in showing me attention.

At Wellington the Hon. John Hall, premier of the Government of New Zealand, received me in the most cordial manner, and assured me that I would find the subject of the enlargement of the trade between New Zealand and the United States a very popular one with the colonists. He gave me a number of letters of introduction to prominent men in various parts of the country, and caused to be forwarded to my address at Auckland many valuable public documents for the use of the consulate.

WOOLEN MILLS NEAR DUNEDIN.

While at Dunedin I visted the Mosgiel Woolen Works, which are situated in the beautiful little town of Mosgiel, on the eastern extremity of the *Faiere Plain*, about 10 miles by railway from Dunedin. This factory is one of the most prosperous in New Zealand. Its subscribed capital is $343,250, and the paid-up capital is $242,655.

The company pays a semi-annual dividend of 10 per cent. to the stockholders, and according to the last annual report $50,000 have been passed to the reserve fund.

About one hundred and fifty persons are employed in the factory. Much of the machinery used in it was imported from the United States. The process of taking the wool from the bales and assorting it is ingenious and admirable. The dyeing-rooms are well appointed. They contain a large number of tanks, for every variety of colors. The carding and spinning sheds are also well arranged. When the yarns are woven into cloth, the latter is taken to the milling-house and passed through two sets of washing rollers, which squeeze out the oil and other impurities. It is then put into the jetting machine, which gives it body. It is next washed and rinsed in cold water. It is then put into the drying machine, which revolves at the rate of one thousand revolutions per minute. The nap of the cloth is then clipped off by an American machine resembling a lawn-mower.

The white spots upon the cloth are now retouched with coloring matter. The cloth is then brushed and subjected to a hydraulic pressure between sheets of card-board, and rolled into bales. The machine used for this purpose measures it at the same time, and with an unerring certainty indicates the exact number of yards and inches.

The tweeds made at this factory compare favorably with the best of

English make, and its blankets and underwear carried off the prizes at the Melbourne Exhibition. The uniforms of the New Zealand armed constabulary are all made of cloth manufactured at these works.

PORT CHALMERS.

Port Chalmers is the seaport of the city of Dunedin. It is built on a peninsula jutting out into the harbor half way between the Heads and Dunedin. The railway comes down to the pier, and every facility is afforded for loading and unloading vessels. The harbor of Dunedin has cost a great deal of money. About fifteen hundred thousand dollars have been expended in the construction of the pier, the patent slip and floating dock and graving dock, and it is estimated that more than double that amount will have to be expended before the work now in progress is finished.

DUNEDIN.

Dunedin, the southern capital of New Zealand, is eight miles by rail from Port Chalmers. It is built upon a series of tiers of terraces which rise gradually from a clear, lake-like bay, to a cluster of magnificent hills overlooking the surrounding country.

The city covers an area of 865 acres. In 1848 it had but one church and about 300 people. To-day its population, including the suburbs, is fully 40,000—the city proper containing 24,377. It has ninety streets, all of which are regularly laid out, and are about 60 feet wide. The streets are well paved, and have asphalted sidewalks. Princess street is 2½ miles in length and contains long rows of elegant houses.

The architectural taste displayed in the construction of the private and public buildings of Dunedin, together with the fame of its churches, theaters, concert halls, museums, libraries, and institutions of art and learning, have given it the name of the modern Athens. The town hall, which is a model of architectural beauty, cost over $200,000.

There are four daily papers published in the city and a number of weekly and literary journals and periodicals. It gratified me exceedingly, while walking down Princess and George streets, to see placarded in the windows of the stores and shops, "American goods sold here," "American plated wares," "American watches," "American axes, hardware, and edge-tools," "American novelties," &c. One enterprising tonsorial artist swung out his sign upon which was painted in large letters, "American barber shop," "Genuine American barber's chairs."

This city is well supplied with gas and water, and is traversed with steam tramways with American-built carriages.

NEW ZEALAND AGRICULTURAL FARM.

I left Dunedin on the 3d of November for a visit to the New Zealand Agricultural Company's estate on the Waimea Plains. This magnificent property is situated about 120 miles from Dunedin. The first station I stopped at was Gore, 99 miles from the former city. Here I took the Waimea Railway, the only railway in the colony not owned by the government. It was built under the supervision of Mr. Henry Driver, United States consular agent at Dunedin, whose fine abilities, superior mental accomplishments, and great wealth have made him quite a power in the land.

Mr. Driver is the manager of the New Zealand Agricultural Company's estate, which is the largest corporation of the kind in the country.

The property consists of 310,000 acres, of which 168,000 acres are freehold and 142,000 leasehold land. It is the purpose of Mr. Driver to sell a large part of this land to immigrants on the deferred-payment system.

The entire estate is fertile and well watered, and no part of it is more than five miles from a railway station. There are on the estate 3,000 horses, a large number of thoroughbred cattle, and over 200,000 sheep. The land under cultivation is very extensive, and the average yield of oats is about 50 bushels to the acre, and on some tracts of it the yield is over 70 bushels to the acre. In one field of 1,200 acres the yield of wheat was 52 bushels per acre.

THE SOUTHERN LAKES.

Mr. Driver went with me to the Southern Lakes. We took the rail to Kingston, a prosperous settlement on the banks of Wakatipu, a beautiful lake 65 miles long and 25 broad. The water in it is clear as crystal. It runs between two ranges of mountains called "the Remarkable" and "the Humboldt Range," some of the peaks of which rise to a height of 8,000 feet.

The tops of the entire range are covered with snow. The walls of the mountains seem to rise perpendicularly out of the water. It was for some time supposed that this lake was so deep that its bottom could not be found, but such is not the case. Its greatest depth is 1,462 feet. The captain of the steamer Mountaineer, which sails between Kingston and Queenstown, informed me that on one occasion he let out 1,400 feet of chain without touching bottom.

The lake is fed by mountain streams and is consequently very cold; indeed so cold that fish cannot live in it, and nothing ever rises to its surface. If a person should fall overboard death would be inevitable, as his body would at once freeze and sink to the bottom.

Beyond Wakatipu are the famous lakes Wanaka and Hawea, the scenery of which is as romantic and beautiful as that of Switzerland. The waters are skirted by undulating terraces embroidered with luxuriant verdure. The hills are not so majestic as those of Wakatipu, but some of them are very grand and covered with craggy glaciers. On one of the mountains is a beautiful silver stream called Minaret Creek, which falls over the top into a magnificent torrent shaped exactly like the letter V.

CHRIST CHURCH.

After visiting the lakes I returned to Dunedin and took the railway to Christ Church. This city is said to be the second in population in the colony, but in reality it is not so large as Auckland. Like Dunedin, it is built back from the harbor, at a distance of about eight miles.

The Christ Church cathedral, which has just been finished, and which was dedicated during my stay there, is one of the most beautiful and costly buildings in the Southern Hemisphere. Christ Church has grown very rapidly during the last few years. In 1871 its population was only 7,931, and it is now, accordingto the last census, 15,214; and if the suburbs were included the total population would be over 35,000.

AGRICULTURAL AND PASTORAL EXHIBITION.

The province of Canterbury, in which Christ Church is situated, is one of the richest agricultural regions in New Zealand, and the annual

agricultural and pastoral exhibition held within a few miles of the city is actually unsurpassed in the Australasian colonies.

The horses, sheep, and cattle exhibited there are among the finest in the world. At the exhibition which I attended over 20,000 people visited the ground during the day.

American display.—I was greatly impressed with the magnificent display of machinery and American agricultural implements. Many other branches of American industry were also represented. I saw the American flag flying in various parts of the grounds over the display of Singer's Sewing Machine Company, the Grover & Baker Company, Davis's sewing machines, White's, Wheeler & Wilson's, and others. I saw the flag also over the courts allotted to the exhibitors of American carriages, buggies, wagons, harness, windmills, ironmongery, boots and shoes, rubber goods, toilet articles, &c. The success of this association has been extraordinary.

The prizes offered are very liberal, and the foremost men in the country do their utmost to promote the interests of the exhibition by encouraging home industries and inviting foreign competition.

PUBLIC EDUCATION.

It is a matter worthy of note that the system of public education adopted in Christ Church and the other cities of New Zealand is practically the same as that of the United States.

Before the present system of education was inaugurated a board of commissioners visited the different schools of the United States and those of Europe for the purpose of inquiry as to the best system of education in both continents.

A decided preference was expressed by the commissioners for the method adopted in the United States. The American system of public education was inaugurated in New Zealand in 1877. At first it was thought that the standard was too high, and some objection was made to the compulsory clause of the educational act, and to the cost to the tax-payers, but these objections have been overruled, and the system upon the whole is found to work admirably.

The number of schools in operation in the colony at the end of last year was 836, and the average attendance was 64,407, and the number of teachers for the same period was 1,971. The various institutions for higher education are affiliate to the University of New Zealand, which is empowered by royal charter to confer degrees ranking with those of Oxford and Cambridge.

WELLINGTON.

The trip homeward from Christ Church was a rapid one, as I was anxious to be in Auckland upon the arrival of the Pacific Mail steamer from San Francisco. I stopped in Wellington long enough to visit the house of parliament, the colonial museum, the government house, the residence of the governor, the two cathedrals, and the building known as the government offices, which is said to be the largest wooden edifice in the world. The population of Wellington, including the suburbs, is about 30,000.

NAPIER.

I reached Napier on the 16th of November, and visited the botanical gardens and several large sheep stations in the neighborhood. The harbor of Napier is a very fine one. The curve of the coast line to the

southward, viewed from the hills, reminded me of the Bay of Naples. The skies are most always cloudless, and the atmosphere is as clear and balmy as that of Italy.

The town is situated about 1½ miles from the harbor, and has a population of 5,756 persons.

GISBORNE PETROLEUM SPRINGS.

I left Napier at 6 o'clock in the evening, and arrived at Gisborne the following day. I drove out to the petroleum-oil springs.

There appear to be three distinct kinds of petroleum in New Zealand, and while at Gisborne I was fortunate enough to obtain samples of each kind.

The first sample is from the Sugar Loaves, in the province of Taranaki. This oil has a very high specific gravity, 960 to 964 at 60° F., water at 1. It has too much carbon ever to become profitable, although it is claimed by analytical chemists to be capable of producing a fine lubricating oil, and it is said to resemble the oil found in Santa Barbara County, California.

The second variety is from Poverty Bay, on the east coast of the province of Auckland. This is said to be a true paraffine oil, resembling the Canadian oil, and, by three successive distillations and treatment with acids and alkalies, about 65 per cent. of good illuminating oil is obtained, with specific gravity of 843.

The third kind is found at Mauntahi Waipu, East Cape. This produces a pale brown oil, nearly transparent, specific gravity of 829, at 60° F., and burns well in a kerosene lamp. It is described as being of a very superior class. It contains only traces of paraffine, and produces 84 per cent. of illuminating oil fit for use in kerosene lamps by means of a single distillation.

Several companies have been organized for working these springs and boring for oil, but as yet they do not appear to have met with any great success.

After leaving Gisborne I sailed direct for Auckland, and arrived here on the morning of the 19th of November, after having traveled a distance of over 3,000 miles, and sailed around the greater part of the islands, and penetrated to the extreme southern limits of the colony.

The condition of the various consular agencies within my jurisdiction will be made the subject of a special report to the Department.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, New Zealand.

RAILWAYS, BANKS, AND AGRICULTURE OF SCOTLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL WELLS, OF DUNDEE, FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1882.

SCOTCH RAILWAYS.

Reports this year indicate both the prosperity of these lines and of the internal trade of this country, as more money has been spent in traveling and in forwarding goods from one district to another. This shows that the tendency of trade throughout Scotland in 1882 has been

improving. Although these railway companies have had increased revenues during the past year they have not increased the dividends payable to shareholders, but have rather spent the surplus in upholding the permanent way, and in providing more efficient service to the public. Thus these railway investments are declining in remunerativeness to the proprietors. The average profit divided is about four per cent. annually. The total capital invested in railway property in Scotland is upwards of £90,000,000; the total gross receipts almost £7,000,000, and the working expenditure about £3,800,000, or, say, 52 per cent. of gross revenue. These railway companies are readily adopting methods of safe working, which they find gives more confidence to travelers, and is in the end profitable.

It is now admitted to be false economy not to be abreast of the times in any plan calculated to lessen the risk of railway traveling. Some of these companies have received sharp reminders of this truth by having to pay large sums as damages for accidents resulting from imperfect plant and in keeping pointsmen too many hours a day at their posts. Pullman cars are now running on the best lines here, and are fairly patronized. The fact that paper wheels are coming into more and more general use on United States railroads, and found to be cheap in the end, and safe, has led railway directors in this country to consider the propriety of introducing them on Scotch lines.

SCOTCH BANKS.

The revival of confidence in these corporations has been very marked during the past year, although within that time they have become limited-liability institutions.

The following table shows the fluctuations which have occurred in Scotch bank stock since the memorable 2d of October, 1878, the date upon which the City of Glasgow Bank failed:

Quotations of Scotch bank stocks at various dates.

Names of banks.	Amount paid up.	1878.		December 24, 1879.	December 23, 1880.	December 14, 1881.
		September 25.	December 24.			
Aberdeen Town and County Bank of Scotland	£7	£22	£18	£17¾	£18¼	£18
	100	327	276	281	289	295
British Linen	100	312½	245	276	274	277½
Caledonian	2½	7⅛	.....	4¼	4¼	4¼
Clydesdale	100	278	166	203	215	239½
Commercial	100	326	242	238	250	272½
National	100	327	261	260	272½	292½
North of Scotland	4	13½	10	10½	10½	10⅝
Royal	100	236¼	188	205	204	210
Union	100	275	175	203¼	214	241

In the first three months embraced in the above table the two banks, with head officers in Glasgow, viz, the Clydesdale and the Union, fell fully £100 each, while the others did not suffer quite so heavily. The table shows how substantially all the banks have recovered during the past two years.

The seven unlimited banks in Scotland not only adopted the principle of limited liability, but also agreed to a uniform plan as regards capital and reserve. The capital of these companies was raised to

£5,000,000 each, of which £1,000,000 is paid up, and £4,000,000 callable or reserve capital. The completion of this arrangement makes the nominal amount of each share £100, whereof £20 per share is paid up, £40 callable, and £40 reserve capital not capable of being called up, except in the event of and for the purpose of the company being wound up. Thus shareholders now know the exact extent of their liability, and investors will no longer be held back through fear of unlimited liability, while at the same time the callable and reserve capital gives ample security to customers.

AGRICULTURE.

This year, on the whole, the harvest of this country is considered the best that has been for many seasons, the yield of every description of cereal produce being fuller and better. Potatoes are a good crop, and so also are turnips. Farmers in Scotland have severely felt the prolonged continuance of bad seasons, and as a consequence many failures have taken place amongst them. They say that the increase of rents, taxation, and other expenses within recent years has been such that even with abundant crops farming has ceased to be remunerative. The agricultural depression which has existed so long has, however, led to permanent reductions and abatements in rents from 15 to 30 per cent.; the average may be taken at 20 per cent. Farming can only be carried on here with a chance of success by capitalists, so much money having to be spent in manuring, improving, and cultivating the soil. A little distance west of Dundee is the celebrated Carse of Gowrie, called the garden of Scotland; it is highly farmed by the best agricultural implements to be seen in this country. These appear comparatively primitive machines compared to those in use in the United States. Scotch agricultural laborers are generally an intelligent and fairly educated body of men. They can do their work efficiently, as the splendidly tilled ground and wonderful crops raised therefrom prove. The wages of male laborers are from $160 to $190 per year; females get from $65 to $80, both receiving board and lodging in addition. A recent Parliamentary return shows that there are 69,380 agricultural tenants in Scotland, 16,000 of whom pay up to £4 of annual rent. Rated at £50 and under £500, there are 18,000 tenants, and it is said not one in 500 of these own the land they till. In Great Britain and Ireland 2,000 individuals own fully a third of the whole area of the United Kingdom. The surprising quantity of $488,342.16 worth of potatoes were exported through this office and its agency at Aberdeen to the United States during the past year; they were of best quality, and generally returned a good profit to the shippers.

From this consular district there has also been sent to the United States this year a large number of Scotch polled cattle for breeding purposes. These were all splendid and most expensive animals. At an auction sale this month at Cortachy Castle, 20 miles from Dundee, the polled Angus cattle belonging to the Earl of Airlie were exposed for sale and brought most unprecedented prices.

The price of cows and heifers averaged $1,020 per head. This is said to be the highest average ever obtained for polled Angus cattle.

WILLIAM B. WELLS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dundee, October 10, 1882.

FRENCH TELEGRAPH AND POSTAL SERVICE.*

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

The postmaster-general of France (*ministre des postes et télégraphes*) has just published a document showing the business of the French post-office, and making a comparison for the years 1877 and 1881.

From an examination of this interesting communication I have the honor to report: In 1881 the number of letters and packages sent through the mails amounted to 1,340,000,000, against 865,000,000 in 1877, an increase of 475,000,000. In fact all the categories show an increase except two. Here is a brief statement:

	1877.	1881.
Prepaid letters	374,000,000	563,000,000
Printed matter (in wrappers)	161,000,000	297,000,000
Printed matter (in envelopes)	44,000,000	50,000,000
Newspapers	219,000,000	354,000,000

Letters unpaid or not fully paid show a decrease. In 1877 the number was 7,789,000; in 1881, 5,978,000.

As to postal cards, in 1877 the number sent through the mails was 32,800,000; in 1881, 32,234,000. This decrease is nothing (though still interesting to note) compared with the large increase in all other mail matter, viz, of 56 per cent. in four years.

The number of post-offices at the close of 1881 was 6,185. The number to-day is 6,487, an increase of 329.

One thousand seven hundred petitions for new offices have already been received for the present year. Of this number 1,200 will be established, answering to the actual wants of the service, according to the minister.

France is much behind in her present postal service. It is estimated that over 30,000 communes (townships) are without post-offices. In this respect, according to her population, France holds but the tenth rank among postal nations.

The number of post-office boxes for the reception of letters has increased but 4,000 since 1877. The number of postal wagons is 323. They form eighty services, employing 2,615 carriers. The ambulant service for 1881 covered 17,459,410 kilometers (10,912,231 miles), about one-fourth of the territory of France. In 1877 it was but 11,000,000 kilometers (6,875,000 miles).

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS.

The postal service for the collection of money was established only in 1879. The following table will show the results of this branch of the French post-office in this short period:

Description.	1879.	1881.
Collections presented:		
Number	425,981	2,937,382
Amount ..... francs	9,564,798	68,173,450
Collections made:		
Number	285,298	1,866,683
Amount ..... francs	6,708,960	48,874,369

* The telegraph in France is owned and operated the same as the post, by the government.

The postal parcel delivery was organized only in 1881. The following is the result of the business of this new branch for the last eight months of the year 1881:

	Packages.
May	349,676
June	425,778
July	411,494
August	410,182
September	482,718
October	631,526
November	666,761
December	808,732
Total	4,186,867

TELEGRAPH SERVICE.

The increase in the number of telegraphic messages sent is still greater, 138 per cent. In 1881 the number of telegraphic messages transmitted amounted to 19,466,000, viz: 17,514,000 inland and 1,952,000 foreign. In 1876 the inland messages transmitted were 7,180,000 and foreign 993,000, a total of only 8,174,000.

The telegraph, like the post, is under the charge of, as it is owned by, the government. The number of telegraph offices is actually 5,481. The total length at present is 73,944 kilometers (about 46,255 miles), and before the end of this year it will be 87,020 kilometers (about 54,387 miles).

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, August 31, 1882.

SAVINGS INSTITUTIONS OF ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL CRAIN, OF MILAN.

Official and other publications show a notable increase in the savings of the Italian people.

On the 30th of June, 1882, there were in Italy 357 banks for savings, counting their branches and agencies; 191 popular banks (*banche popolari*), designed to help the working classes and paying interest on deposits; 64 institutions of credit; 3,449 post-offices accepting savings deposits; in all, 4,061 institutions dedicated to this beneficent object.

The showing at the above date was—

	No.	Number of bank books.	Amount of deposits.
Savings banks	357	1,024,385	$141,621,996 73
Popular banks	191	121,812	24,664,085 00
Institutions of credit	64	95,509	15,027,251 93
Postal savings banks	3449	545,114	14,964,700 63
Total		1,786,820	196,278,034 29

It is not to be supposed that this amount represents exclusively savings, as some of it was deposited for temporary safe-keeping. However,

the deposits in post-offices reveal that a real spirit of savings is taking root in Italy, as the small sums aggregate nearly $15,000,000.

The average of deposits in these postal institutions for the first six months of 1882 was:

January	$19 30
February	17 37
March	16 98
April	17 56
May	17 75
June	17 08

The average in the other savings institutions for the same period was:

Savings banks	$40 92
Popular banks	115 80
Other institutions	107 12

The average value of every book outstanding in the country on June 30, 1882, was:

For savings banks	$138 24
For popular banks	202 32
For other institutions	157 34

With a general average of $165.86 per book, against $27.44 for postal savings banks.

During the same six months, books were issued and canceled as follows:

	Number of books.	Amount of deposits.
Savings banks:		
Issued	89,204	$28,152,386
Canceled	64,572	23,013,900
Popular banks:		
Issued	18,626	15,214,797
Canceled	9,505	13,977,970
Other institutions:		
Issued	14,487	11,974,769
Canceled	10,002	10,711,108
Postal banks:		
Issued	81,607	8,218,554
Canceled	7,587	6,184,249
Total increase		6,753,279

Altogether, Italy, with its 4,061 savings institutions, had issued in six months, 203,924 books with 1,378,611 deposits, amounting to $62,660,508.64, and had canceled 91,669 books, with 346,372 reimbursements, amounting to $55,924,578.48; so that the savings were increased $6,735,930.18.

These figures, though modest in comparison with the accumulations in some other countries, are yet an eloquent expositor of the material and moral progress now dawning upon Italy.

Luzzatti, the Italian statesman, who has been the chief promoter of these savings institutions, has truly said that—

> The laboring hero of savings has fought and won a battle which leaves no traces for the proud historian to record, but which will exercise a great influence upon national temper and character.

DUNHAM J. CRAIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, October 14, 1882.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS IN HOLLAND.

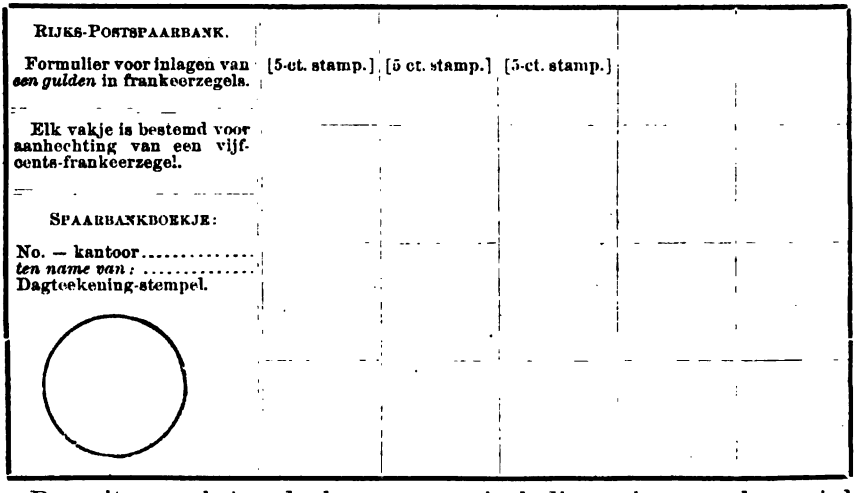
REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN, OF AMSTERDAM.

This institution, established pursuant to the provisions of a law dated the 25th of May, 1880, and by royal resolution dated the 5th of March, 1881, came into operation on the 1st of April, 1881.

The whole of the management is conducted at the principal office at Amsterdam, and intrusted to a director, subject to a supervision of a board of control, composed of five members, who, as well as the said director, are appointed by the King.

Money deposits can be made at any general or branch post-office, of which there were 809 throughout the kingdom on December 31, 1881. The smallest amount received is 25 cents, or about 10 cents United States currency.

In order to encourage as much as possible small savings, forms for the making of small deposits in postage-stamps are issued gratuitously at every post-office and by every licensed vender of postage-stamps. Each of these forms is adapted for the fixing thereon of twenty "stamps" of one "stuiver," or five cents Dutch currency, each, and, when filled, is received as a deposit of one florin, or about 40 cents United States currency. I here annex such a form:



Deposits can be made by any one, including minors and married women, as well as in favor of third parties. They can be withdrawn only by the depositor himself, or by a person duly authorized by him.

Every deposit is entered in a little book issued gratis to the depositor when he makes his first deposit, on which occasion he has to sign a certain form of declaration, by which he obligates himself to conform to the laws existing or hereafter to be passed, and, so far as they relate to depositors in the government or postal savings banks, subsequent deposits can be made by him through any one to whom he may choose to intrust his book.

Deposits can be made and withdrawn at another post-office than the one where the first entry in the depositor's book was made.

Interest on the deposits is paid at the rate of 2.64 per cent. per annum.

At the end of every year after the first entry in his book, the depositor has to send the same to the director, who causes the interest accrued

in the course of the year to be entered therein; but should the whole of the depositor's savings be withdrawn at any intermediate time, the accrued interest up to that period is paid to him at once.

All correspondence between depositors and the director is transmitted free of postage, for which purpose printed forms are issued gratis at the several post-offices.

Pursuant to article 16 of the before-mentioned law, the board of control has fixed the following rules with regard to the investment of money deposits: At least three-fourths of the deposits have to be actually invested, and the remaining one-fourth can be kept floating by temporary loans given on the security of stocks in accordance with the rules laid down for such loans by the committee of the Amsterdam Stock Exchange.

As a rule, one-half of the deposits has to be invested in 2½ per cent. national debt of the Netherlands, and duly entered in the *Groot Boek* (Public Ledger) of the said debt. The remainder of the capital to be invested can be used in purchasing bonds issued by provincial and municipal governments, in so far as these are quoted in the list published by the Amsterdam Stock Exchange, or bonds issued by the National and Rotterdam Mortgage Banks.

The restitution of the deposited amounts, as well as the payment of the interest due thereon, is guaranteed by the state.

In order to promote the object of this useful institution the director has published a pamphlet headed "Government postage savings banks," thousands of copies of which have been spread gratuitously throughout the country, and a circular has been addressed to the directors of all important companies, as well as to local authorities and officials, and others who are in a position to exercise influence, requesting them to do all in their power to induce those who are in their employ or stand under them to avail themselves of this easy and convenient means of providing against the evils of misfortunes or less prosperous times. And although this institution has existed but a short time, the results are most satisfactory, as will be evident from the following data drawn from a report issued by the minister for public works, trade, and industry, on the operations of the postage savings banks during the past year, that is, from the commencement, on the 1st of April, 1881, to the 31st December of that year.

Statement showing, by provinces, the amounts deposited, the amounts withdrawn, and the balance remaining, as well as the number of "savings-bank books" issued and returned (paid up), and the number remaining in circulation on the 31st of December, 1881.

Provinces.	Deposited.	Withdrawn.	Balance.	Number of savings-bank books.		
				Issued.	Return'd.	Circulating.
	Florins.	*Florins.*	*Florins.*			
North Brabant	225,062.81[5]	48,039.95	177,022.86[5]	3,271	143	3,128
Gelderland	126,966.72	31,901.70	95,065.02	2,614	89	2,525
South Holland	271,671.26	70,854.10	200,817.16	6,209	304	5,905
North Holland	237,686.13[5]	77,215.67[5]	160,470.46	4,364	167	4,197
Zeeland	51,420.19[5]	10,297.32	41,212.87[5]	1,592	35	1,557
Utrecht	59,936.80	11,117.39	48,819.41	1,271	57	1,214
Friesland	30,800.38	5,781.04	25,019.34	1,213	46	1,167
Overyssel	41,219.36[5]	7,979.09	33,240.27[5]	1,172	42	1,130
Groningen	17,255.25	1,455.07	15,800.18	646	26	620
Drenthe	10,958.25	3,971.52	6,986.73	272	2	270
Limburg	53,984.79	8,099.38[5]	45,885.26	1,149	31	1,118
Total in kingdom	1,126,961.96	276,622.24	850,339.57[5]	23,773	942	22,831

Statement showing the number of deposits and withdrawals in each province, from April 1 to December 31, 1881.

Provinces.	Number of deposits.						
		In money each of—					
	In postage-stamps.	.25 florin.	.26 to 1 florin.	1.01 to 9.99 florins.	10 to 100 florins.	100 florins and over.	Total.
North Brabant	1,250	897	3,332	3,525	2,042	433	11,497
Gelderland	1,152	538	2,353	2,430	1,412	226	8,111
South Holland	4,265	1,760	6,392	6,731	3,427	474	23,489
North Holland	2,887	1,073	4,722	6,324	2,797	416	18,219
Zeeland	752	571	1,423	1,381	634	90	4,851
Utrecht	692	412	1,226	1,226	571	137	4,364
Friesland	520	799	1,865	1,505	530	37	5,256
Overyssel	442	454	1,254	1,250	557	68	4,025
Groningen	397	203	613	545	233	36	2,027
Drenthe	104	41	282	278	131	22	858
Limburg	627	251	1,006	1,288	607	105	3,884
Total	13,088	6,999	24,468	26,483	12,941	2,044	86,623

Provinces.	Number of withdrawals.							
	Direct to depositors in sums of—			To order of depositors in sums of—				
	1 florin or less.	1.01 to 10 florins.	Total.	1 florin or less.	1.01 to 10 florins.	10.01 to 100 florins.	100 florins and over.	Total.
North Brabant	84	376	460	23	52	183	86	344	804
Gelderland	61	379	440	15	36	159	46	256	696
South Holland	228	1,363	1,591	75	149	391	128	743	2,334
North Holland	146	1,267	1,413	29	93	424	128	674	2,087
Zeeland	18	85	103	10	15	40	15	80	183
Utrecht	35	141	176	11	32	69	21	133	309
Friesland	30	204	234	16	15	68	8	107	341
Overyssel	42	150	192	12	18	43	20	93	285
Groningen	19	55	74	9	13	18	2	42	116
Drenthe	3	35	38	.....	4	13	8	25	63
Limburg	18	98	116	3	15	40	13	71	187
Total	684	4,153	4,837	203	442	1,448	475	2,568	7,405

The governments of this country and Belgium entertain a high appreciation of post-office savings-banks, and they are favored by public sentiment in these countries. As evidence of this I conclude this report by stating that authorized representatives of the two countries a few days ago met at The Hague to perfect arrangements for a convention between Holland and Belgium, with the object in view of making deposits in the government or postal savings-banks in the Netherlands, payable also in Belgium, and *vice versa*.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, November 8, 1882.

WOOLEN MILLS IN VERVIERS.

REPORT BY CONSUL TANNER.

I have the honor to transmit with the present the circular from the department relating to woolen mills and the manufacture of wool in my consular district.

Statistics of a worsted mill in Renaupié, near Verviers, Belgium, engaged in the manufacture of worsted yarns.

PLANT.

Area of land occupied, and present cost value of same: 137,500 square feet; value, $20,000.
Area of floor surfaces in buildings, 125,000 square feet.
Machinery: spindles employed, self-acting, 15,000; folding, 4,000; cards, 27, double width combs, 48; sets of preparers, 3.
Present cost value of all the machinery employed in running the mill, including boilers, engines, shafting, tools, &c., $206,500.
Amount of taxes paid annually on same, $750.
Arranged for steam or water-power: steam-power, 400 horses (two engines).
Cost of coal per ton (2,240 pounds), delivered at mill, $2.20.
Rate of taxation on quick capital employed, 5 per cent.
Average rate of interest paid on capital borrowed, 6 per cent.
What returns on capital invested would be satisfactory to the owner? 5 per cent.
Total number of persons employed in the mill and about the premises, 365 persons.
Hours of labor per week, 72; total amount of wages paid per week, $970.

LABOR (SPINNING DEPARTMENT).

Occupation.	Average wages per week.		
	Men.	Women.	Young persons.
Wool sorting:			
Overseer	$6 00		
Second hand			
Overlooker			
Sorter		$3 60	
Carding and combing:			
Overseer	9 00		
Second hand	4 25		
Wool-washers	4 00		
Preparers and combers		3 40	
Carders	4 00	3 40	
Finishers and ballers	4 29		
Drawing:			
Overseer	17 00		
Second hand	7 00		
Drawers		3 40	
Assistants		3 40	
Spinning:			
Overseer	17 00		
Section hand	6 00		
Assistants to sections			*$1 80
Frame-spinners	6 00		
Mule-spinners	6 00		
Doublers	6 00		
Doffers			
Spare hands	4 00		

* Boys of 12 years.

Statistics of a woolen mill located in Dison, near Verviers, and engaged in the manufacture of tweeds and similars.

Area of land occupied, 132,000 square feet: present cost value of same, $36,000.
Area of floor of buildings, 121,000 square feet.
Material of buildings, stones, bricks, wood, iron, &c.; present cost value of same, $77,000.

MACHINERY USED.

Number of carding-engines, 14.
Number of main cylinders to each engine, 3.
Width of same, 4 feet.
Number of mules or jacks, 27 self-actors.
Whole number of spindles, 9,000.
Number of looms, 230.
Number of harnesses used to each, according to the article made.
Width of same, 5 to 6 feet.
Present cost value of all the machinery employed in running the mill, including boilers, engines, shafting, tools, fixtures, &c., $140,000.
Present taxable valuation of the foregoing land, buildings, and machinery, and power (if water), $200,000.
Amount of taxes paid annually on same, $600.
Arranged for steam or water power—steam-power.
Cost of coal per ton (2,240 pounds), delivered at mill, $2.30.
Rate of taxation on quick capital employed, 5 per cent.
Average rate of interest paid on capital borrowed, 6 per cent.
What return on capital invested would be satisfactory to the owner? Five per cent.
State cost of single set of carding-engines, as above described—$2,200.
State cost of a single loom, as above described—$360.
Total number of persons employed in the mill and about the premises, 450.
Number of hours of labor per week, 70; total amount of wages paid per week, $2,000.

Occupation.	Average wages per week.		
	Men.	Women.	Young persons.
Wool-sorting:			
Overseer			
Second hand			
Sorters		$3 00	
Wool-picking:			
Overseers	$4 80		
Picker-tenders	3 60	2 50	
Wool or cloth dyers:			
Overseer	10 00		
Second hand			
Overlookers			
Common hands	3 60		
Wool-carding:			
Overseer	12 00		
Second hands	6 00		
Card-grinders	4 00		
Common hands	3 60		
Spinning:			
Overseer	10 00		
Second hands			
Mule-fixers	6 00		
Spinners	4 00		$2 60
Dressing:			
Overseer	6 00		
Second hand	4 00		
Dressers	4 00		
Weaving:			
Overseer	12 00		
Second hand	6 00		
Section hands	6 00		
Weavers	5 00		
Finishing:			
Overseers	7 00		
Second hands	3 00		
Burling hands		3 00	
Scourers (cloth)	4 20		
Fullers	4 20		
Giggers and teaseling	3 60		
Shearers	3 60		
Pressers	5 00		

Statistics of a woolen mill located in Dison, near Verviers, &c.—Continued.

Occupation.	Average wages per week.		
	Men.	Women.	Young persons.
Repair hands:			
Overseer	6 00		
Machinists	6 00		
Carpenters	5 00		
Pipers			
Yard hands, &c.:			
Overseer			
Engineers	7 00		
Firemen	6 00		
Watchmen	4 00		
Laborers	3 00		

I take occasion to thank the Hon. Jules Duckerts, of Verviers, for his urbanity in supplying me with the above information.

GEO. C. TANNER,
Consul.

LIEGE, *November* 22, 1882.

SARDINE INDUSTRY IN FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILSON, OF NANTES.

I have the honor to transmit herewith a report on the sardine industry in France, made after such examination as I have been able to give it.

The manner of doing business and of keeping statistics is so different from the United States, added to which the difficulties of a foreign language make it difficult for me to obtain exact information on which to base reports. Discrepancies may therefore be discovered in numbers, values, amounts, but I have only endeavored to give a general and approximate idea of the importance of this industry, and how it is carried on.

SARDINES ON THE FRENCH COAST.

The catching and curing of sardines has become a national industry of France. Its importance will be seen from the number of persons employed, the money invested, and the value and amount of the product. It employs from 3,000 to 4,000 boats, manned by from 24,000 to 25,000 fishermen. It has about 200 factories, which employ 15,000 to 17,000 women, and from 1,000 to 1,200 men, with 3,000 to 3,500 mechanics, tinners, carpenters, and box-makers.

These factories carry on the preserving of vegetables in conjunction with sardines.

The amount and value of the products for several years is estimated as follows:

Years.	Cases of 100 boxes.	Total value.	
		Francs.	*Dollars.*
1879	1,000,000	50,000,000	10,000,000
1880	350,000	12,500,000	2,500,000
1881	300,000	12,600,000	2,520,000
1882 (estimated)	450,000	19,800,000	3,960,000

The average productions per year of preserved vegetables amount to about 150,000 cases. The seasons of 1878 and 1879 were exceptionally good, and those following exceptionally poor. The coast of La Vendée and Brittany is the harvest of the sardine fisheries. The fish make their appearance about March or April, coming from the south, and traveling northward. The season closes in the southern ports about the last of September, and in the northern about the last of October.

The boats have two masts, which are set at a long rake, hull strung about for drying the nets, and tarpaulins for housing them. They carry a crew of six to seven men, and one can scarcely imagine a more thrilling sight than a fleet of fisher-boats (at Concarneau they have 800) going out to sea on a bright morning, with a fine breeze.

Each boat has its net or nets, say 120 feet long and from 8 to 10 feet in width, or rather depth. It is strung with pieces of cork of proper size, placed at proper intervals on one edge, with corresponding leads on the other. The boats having at one, two, or some five miles from shore, struck a school of fish, the net is cast, one end being left loose while the other is made fast to the boat. The arrangement of cork and lead causes the net to assume an upright position in the water, and the boat, with either sail or oar, is given sufficient headway to keep the net free. The fisherman, standing in the stern, throws out the bait, first on one side then on the other of the net. The sardines are attracted in shoals, and attempting to pass from one side to the other in pursuit of the bait, are caught by the gills in the meshes of the net, which for this purpose are made small and of fine twine. When sufficient numbers are caught the net is hauled in and emptied, to be again cast.

The bait used is cod-fish roe, called in French commerce *rogues*. And one must wonder at the fecundity of this fish, that it continues to exist when its eggs, no larger than a mustard seed, are used in the manner and number suggested. The importation (from Norway, England, and Saint Pierre Miquelon) at this port only, was, during the last two years, as follows:

	Kilograms.
1880	659,021
1881	294,459

How many cod-fish are represented by 1,000 tons of eggs I have no means of determining, but add to these the importations at other ports, which made in 1879 a total of 7,598,080 kilograms, valued at 3,191,194 francs, and the number becomes bewildering, and defies calculation.

The sardines are sold from the boats to the factories by number, so much per thousand; while they are sold in commerce by quantity, so much per box.

The boxes are different sizes, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{2}{4}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, though the first is the standard, and they are valued according to their cubic contents. The larger the fish, the fewer it requires to fill a box, and, up to a certain size, the more valuable they are.

The fish grow larger as the season advances, and as they go farther north; therefore the northern ports have a large advantage.

Fish taken early in the season at, say, Sable d'Olonne, near Bordeaux, may require 15 to 18 to fill a box, while of those taken later at Concarneau and Douarnenez, near Brest, 5 to 8 will fill the same box. The best and highest priced are from 8 to 12 in a box.

The fish vary in price according to their plentifulness as well as their size. The catch in a good season will average per boat per day, say from 6,000 to 10,000 fish of a large size, and 15,000 to 20,000 of a small size. In 1878 and 1879, years exceptionally good, they caught some days even 35,000 per boat.

The price paid the fisherman is as uncertain as the number he catches. It ranges everywhere from 3 to 65 francs per thousand. The figures of the catch and their prices are changed day by day by wind and weather. The only reliability lies in taking the aggregate at the end of the season and so determining the average. I have already given the number of boxes and their value for each of several years.

The average paid to the fisherman was as follows: In 1880, 35 francs per M; 1881, 35 francs per M; 1882 (estimated), 38 francs per M.

There is no better way to show this changeability from day to day than to take at random the daily report of number, price, and condition of the fisheries, as published in the newspapers.

The present season, though better than the two preceding, has not been satisfactory. The supply will be insufficient to meet the usual and expected demands, and the manufacturers believe they hold the key to the position. Prices are advancing and the manufacturers are growing firmer in their demands.

The foreign commerce of all France in sardines is shown for the years 1879 and 1880 by the following tables:

Importations, 1879.

	Kilograms.
Spain	220,174
Algeria	384,566
Other countries	4,665
Total	609,405

Total value, 1,218,810 francs.

The above represents about 20,000 cases. Of this quantity only 385,743 kilograms, about 7,400 cases, valued at 771,486, francs, were entered at the custom-house for consumption, on which the duty paid was 485 francs. Algerian sardines pay no duties. The balance, about 13,000 cases, were never entered, but reshipped to some other country.

Exportations, 1879.

To Russia:	Kilograms.
Baltic Sea	484,963
Black Sea	356,197
Germany	1,234,882
Holland	405,052
England	7,476,826
Italy	352,262
Turkey	676,407
United States	1,644,668
Venezuela	301,339
Brazil	646,726
Argentine Republic	439,139
All others	2,309,397
Total	16,327,856

Total value of the above, 32,655,712 francs, making an average of 2 francs per kilogram.

I find it impracticable to reduce these kilograms to cases. One hundred boxes are packed in a case, but they are different size boxes and make different weight cases; ¼ weighs about 1.10 kilograms; ¾ weighs about .500 kilograms; ¼ weighs about .310 kilograms.

Importations, 1880.

	Kilograms.
Spain	543,614
Algeria	313,777
All others	16,240
Total	873,631

Value of the above, 2,271,441 francs, an average of 2.60 francs per kilogram.

Entered for consumption.

Whence.	Kilograms.	Value.	Duty collected.
		Francs.	*Francs.*
Spain	28,415		
Algeria	283,967		
All others	3,288		
Total	315,670	820,742	3,179

Exportations, 1880.

	Kilograms.
To Russia:	
Baltic Sea	376,443
Black Sea	192,026
Germany	721,522
Belgium	367,323
England	4,701,887
Italy	178,897
United States	1,755,757
Mexico	184,345
Venezuela	326,234
Brazil	191,815
Argentine Republic	272,665
All others	1,549,944
Total	10,817,868

Value of the above, 30,290,002 francs, an average of 2.80 francs per kilogram.

It is expected the average for 1881 and 1882 will be not less than 3 francs per kilogram.

DISAPPEARANCE OF THE SARDINE.

The partial disappearance of the sardine from these coasts has excited the apprehension of those interested, and has been the subject of many scientific examinations and theoretical speculations. The French Academy of Sciences has interested itself in the matter, and a paper was read before it some time since alleging a displacement of the Gulf Stream as the reason for the disappearance of the sardines. I was prepared for some charge, and suspected our protective tariff, but never the Gulf Stream. The best authorities are now attributing it to the cold winters.

AMERICAN VS. FRENCH PROTECTIVE TARIFF.

Apropos of our protective tariff, the opposition here to it is outspoken and almost bitter. "*Énormément épouvantable*," "*Le vieux de la montagne*," are some of the terms used in denouncing it. Yet I find it makes all the difference, as it did in the fable, who owns the ox and who the bull, for pending the discussion of the new French tariff, which reduced the duties on imported sardines from 31.20 francs to 10 francs per hundred kilograms, I find a protest made by the syndicate of manufacturers at Nantes, sent to the Senate through the chamber of commerce. As it seems a complete answer to their claims against our system of protection, I give a quotation. They first give the tariff of other countries: United States: Sardines, 60 francs to 95 francs per 100 kilograms; veg-

etables, 53 francs per hundred kilograms. Germany: Sardines, 95 francs per 100 kilograms. Russia: Sardines, 73.25 francs per 100 kilograms. Then follows their argument:

A comparison of these figures is sufficient to demonstrate that the interests of the French producer will be absolutely sacrificial. The well-known superiority of our merchandise has, during several years, counterbalanced the effects of these tariffs, but little by little the consumer is seduced by the cheaper markets and has forsaken our products which we will be obliged to part with under cost.

The question presented for us, then, is one of life or death. It belongs to you to decide. That we may continue to live, we ask the maintenance of the old tariff and the rejection of the rates proposed by the government and accepted by the Chamber of Deputies. * * * In conclusion, we have the right to demand that the French markets shall be reserved to us by a protective tariff equivalent to that which the foreign nations inflict upon our goods, or else that the foreign market shall be opened to us by a reduction of their tariffs, as ours are open to all foreign products.

* * * * * * *

The argument was of no avail and the reduction was made in the new tariff.

This argument, thus made in favor of a protective tariff in the case of an article of merchandise of which this country is the principal producer—where in 1879 the exportations stood 32,000,000 francs as against 771,000 importations, and, in 1880, 30,000,000 as against 820,000, where the tariff at its high rates produced during the two years only an aggregate of less than 4,000 francs, shows a watchfulness and regard for self-interest on the part of French manufacturers which would do no discredit to their own estimate of the most ardent and persistent protectionists in the United States.

THOMAS WILSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nantes, September 30, 1882.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF ONTARIO.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT ELLIOTT, OF MORRISBURG.

I have the honor to herewith transmit my report concerning the business and commercial interests of this commercial agency. The fall weather has been delightful, and in this locality very favorable for crops.

A comparison of the returns for the present year with the reports of the three previous years shows the crops of this year to have been a full average, equaling that of any previous season.

Fall wheat has been a large and excellent crop, the yield throughout Western Ontario having exceeded the average, while the average under seed was greater than ever before.

Barley is unprecedentedly large, the yield surpassing even that of last year, some of which, however, gathered in wet weather, was somewhat discolored in the chief barley district, the Bay of Quinte; the grain was garnered in good condition. Excepting in the Hastings district the *hay* crop may be said to have everywhere exceeded the average, and in Western Ontario, where hay was a signal failure last year, the yield has been especially heavy.

The *oat* crop has been a heavy one; it was extensively sown in all parts of the country and harvested in good condition.

It will thus be seen that fall wheat, oats, and hay have resulted very satisfactorily; that barley is an abundant crop, but depreciated in quality.

Spring wheat and pease are hardly up to the mark. The fruit crop, particularly the apples, is a decided failure, the orchards in many districts being practically nude, although this is an apple year.

The crop of small fruits, however, has been fair, and the root crop good. The statistics show that the total produce of fall wheat in the province of Ontario is 32,352,403 bushels, of spring wheat 9,295,793 bushels, of barley 23,545,059 bushels, of oats 52,997,169 bushels, and of pease, 11,428,450 bushels. These figures exceed the estimates made on the 1st of June, especially the figures of wheat and oats.

I herewith transmit the statistics of live stock in Ontario:

HORSES.	
Working horses	339,481
Breeding mares	72,065
Unbroken horses	100,505
CATTLE.	
Thoroughbred	23,297
Working oxen	14,245
Milch cows	690,652
Store cattle over two years	272,861
Other cattle	617,001
SHEEP.	
Coarse-wooled:	
One year and over	941,744
Under one year	686,610
Fine-wooled:	
One year and over	183,022
Under one year	131,404
PIGS.	
One year and over	257,406
Under one year	609,589
POULTRY.	
Number of turkeys	317,784
Number of geese	538,922
Number of other fowls	4,521,899

The above statistics of live-stock in the province of Ontario aggregate as follows: 10,308,487. The crops in the Morrisburg commercial district are exceedingly good. Hay extra good, on account of the fine fall weather during haying. Oats, pease, barley, and wheat are an excellent crop, and potatoes fair. Grapes have not ripened very well.

Farm laborers are scarce, wages ranging during harvesting from $1.50 to $2.50 per day, and from $25 to $40 per month, with board.

The town of Morrisburg has voted unanimously a $10,000 bonus to the projected and chartered great international railway line from Ottawa, the capital of Canada, crossing the river St. Lawrence with a bridge at Morrisburg, and thence onward to the seaboard. Engineers are surveying and locating the line, and the early construction of this international thoroughfare is confidently regarded as in the near future.

A. B. ELLIOTT,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Morrisburg, October 26, 1882.

CENSUS OF ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL DUNCAN, OF NAPLES.

I forward with this an official copy of the census report of the Kingdom of Italy, taken December 31, 1881, which has just been published. This shows that the entire population of the kingdom was, on that date, 28,951,374. On the corresponding date ten years previous, the population was 26,801,154. The increase for the decade was then 2,150,220, or only 8 per cent. for the ten years. This is not at all a favorable showing, even when compared with the neighboring countries of France and Germany, in each of which the increase has been during this period of ten years about 12 per cent. But it is somewhat better than the Empire of Austria, where the increase has only been at the rate of about 0.65 per cent. per annum, or 6½ per cent. for ten years.

Unfortunately this report only gives the official figures on the date of its execution, by provinces and communes, without giving any other data, so that for the purpose of making a comparison with previous censuses and with other countries I have had to seek information elsewhere.

According to this report, the population of the principal cities in Italy are as follows:

Naples	494,314
Milan	321,839
Rome (including 25,000 government employés)	300,467
Turin	252,832
Palermo	244,991
Genoa	179,515
Florence	169,001
Venice	132,826
Messina	126,497
Bologna	123,274
Catania	100,417
Leghorn	97,615

The colonial possessions of Italy are not as yet very important, being limited to the Bay of Assab, in Africa, at the entry to the Red Sea, with a population, according to a consular estimate, of only 1,193.

B. O. DUNCAN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Naples, November 14, 1882.

BREAD RIOT AT JEREZ, SPAIN.

REPORT BY CONSUL OPPENHEIM, OF CADIZ.

I have the honor to inform the Department that serious disturbances have lately taken place in the city of Jerez, culminating last Friday, the 3d instant, in the plundering of the bakeries and of some of the provision shops by the mob. Early on that day from 1,000 to 1,200 of the unemployed, according to agreement with the municipal authorities, had gathered in the Plaza de Santiago, where the chief of the constabulary proceeded to engage some 400 to 500 of the men for employment upon the public works. This arrangement encountered strong opposition amongst the men, who refused to entertain any proposition not furnishing work to all. There appears not to have been any delibera-

tion or preconcerted plan about this; it looked like a spontaneous conclusion on the part of the men, not accompanied thus far by any riotous proceedings, and shortly thereafter they marched in a body to the square in front of the ayuntamiento (city hall), where the municipal council were in session. Just as the crowd reached the square there happened to pass by a loaded baker's cart, and this was apparently a temptation which the men were not able to withstand; the cart was empted in the twinkling of an eye, in spite of the futile efforts of the few policemen present. This seemed to be the signal for a general breaking loose of all restraint, and within a remarkably short time nearly every bakery in the city was gutted; the mob also began to pay its attentions to the groceries and wine shops, producing great panic amongst the shopkeepers, and for a few hours the town appeared as if given over to mob rule. Storekeepers who made any show of resistance were threatened with sticks and knives, though fortunately there seem to have been no cases of serious bodily violence. It is characteristic of the versatility of the Andalusian temper that the outburst blew over within a few hours; by twelve o'clock already the laborers had once more gathered in the public square, leaving shortly thereafter in a peaceable manner. The bakeries had by that time been put in charge of the guardia civil, some two or three men with loaded guns guarding the door of each establishment. At a meeting of prominent tax-payers, convened by the alcade, which took place in the evening of the same day, the situation was thoroughly discussed, and as a practical means of meeting the emergency it was resolved to issue a municipal loan of $12,000, the money however to be used only in payment of labor upon the roads and elsewhere. A proposition to distribute bread as against giving employment was defeated, though only by 31 to 26. In the mean time the governor of the province had been appealed to, some 300 troops had arrived, and by next morning the city had reassumed its every-day appearance. Since then a large proportion of the unemployed have been furnished work, the most prominent plunderers or instigators have been arrested, and tranquillity may be looked upon as restored for the nonce. Yet public apprehension is by no means allayed, basing itself upon the undeniable distress prevailing amongst the laboring and agricultural classes; 20,000 men is a moderate estimate of the number of the unemployed in this province alone, representing probably over 60,000 persons for whom provision of some sort will have to be made until next harvest. A circumstance bearing with especial weight upon the small cultivator is the great scarcity of forage, forcing many of the poorer peasants to part with their cattle and draught animals. I am informed that wheat straw and barley straw, the forage in general use throughout Andalusia, have recently sold at the astounding figure of $70 per ton.

There has been thus far no indication that the recent troubles have been caused by anything but destitution and lack of work. Political motives seem to be "conspicuously absent," and socialist agitation, such as disturbs France and other countries, has not obtained a foothold here. Notwithstanding this, however, there are, aside from the economical evils, signs that augur badly for the preservation of public order in this province. The small proprietary class is not numerous, thus leaving, so to say, a vast proletariat face to face with a few large land-holders and wealthy employers, and between the two classes there seems to be a gulf that nothing can bridge. The laborers have not yet arrived at that almost unconscious acquiescence with economic laws which alone makes possible the preservation of order in the great in-

dustrial countries; and, on the other hand, the old spirit of fealty to superior or employer has utterly disappeared.

The information that finds its way into print comes, as might be expected, chiefly from the employing class, as do also the data and opinions upon which the present communication is based.

Now, amongst the employers there certainly is considerable bitterness of tone in discussing the situation quite different from the utterances in the public prints. This, in conjunction with the prevailing distress and proneness to violence of the Andalusian laborer, may well justify the fear that troublous times are in store for this district.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cadiz, November 8, 1882.

THE EUCALYPTUS TREE.

REPORT BY CONSUL BAKER, OF BUENOS AYRES.

Thinking the matter might be of some interest to the people of the United States, I inclose a report setting forth the success which has attended the introduction of the *Eucalyptus globulus* in the Argentine Republic, and somewhat explaining the method of its cultivation here.

I have several times in my annual reports referred to the successful introduction of the *Eucalyptus globulus* (the blue gum tree) of Australia into the Argentine Republic, and spoken of the rapidity with which some portions of the pampas heretofore destitute of timber are now being dotted with plantations of these magnificent trees; and from the ease with which they can be grown, and the marvelous rapidity of their growth, I suggested the feasibility of their cultivation in the milder parts of the United States. I observe that in a more recent report to the Department,* accompanied by an article from a French paper, Consul Wilson, of Brussels, shows the success which has attended their introduction into France, and also suggests their acclimation in the treeless regions of our southern territories.

From what I have observed during my stay in this country, I am more and more convinced that the Eucalyptus is a most desirable tree with which to timber our southwestern plains and renew our rapidly decreasing forests; and I believe that a proper trial on a large scale, in those portions of our country where the winters are not too severe, would speedily render it such a favorite that its cultivation, not only for ornament, but for timber, would become general.

VARIOUS SPECIES OF EUCALYPTUS.

To avoid disappointment, however, in attempting plantations in the United States, it should be borne in mind that there are many species of this tree; and that not all or even many of them would bear our climate, except, perhaps, that of our extreme Southern States, as they require a tropical or subtropical temperature. Others of them, however, are quite hardy and are capable of bearing very severe cold.

With a view to testing their cold-bearing qualities, Dr. Ernst Aberg,

* United States Consular Reports, No. 8, page 890.

a member of the Academy of Medical Sciences, and a German scientist, who has resided many years in Buenos Ayres, has lately devoted a large share of attention to the growing of these trees. He has now at his county-seat, near the town of Ramos Mejia, on the Buenos Ayres and Western Railroads, upwards of sixty varieties* in more or less successful cultivation.

In a recent publication† on this subject he says, that while the most of them are too delicate to be grown in the province of Buenos Ayres, except as ornamental trees, requiring special care, a few are not affected by even severe cold, and can support the changes of the most variable climates. Among these he especially recommends the following:

Eucalyptus alpina, which grows on the highlands and mountains of Victoria at an altitude of 4,000 feet above the level of the sea.

E. armygdalina, a very large tree, measuring generally upwards of 80 feet in height by 2 feet in diameter, while it is not rare in Australia to see specimens 200 feet high, and 40 feet in diameter at 4 feet from the ground. The tree seems to do well in Buenos Ayres, growing very rapidly, and producing a magnificent hard wood, with beautiful veins running through it. Its vulgar name among the colonists is the *narrow-leaved peppermint tree.*

E. coriacea, a tree which can endure the intensest cold, forming in New South Wales and Victoria extensive forests at an altitude of 5,000 feet above the sea-level. Its common name is the *mountain white gum tree.* Its leaves are large and lustrous.

E. gunuii, which grows to a height of 100 feet on the high lands of Victoria, and is able to resist the cold. Its vulgar name is the *cider tree.*

E. piperita, one of the most beautiful of the species as an ornamental tree, and well known in Buenos Ayres. Its trunk is white and smooth, something like our sycamore, its branches are graceful, and its leaves are small and bright, and it is a great favorite with the horticulturists. It grows very rapidly, and produces buds of a delicate red color, which at a distance have a beautiful effect. Its wood is very hard, and has a fine fiber. I have seen specimens in Buenos Ayres which at four years were 20 feet high. In Australia it is called the *peppermint tree.*

E. polyanthemus, a tree highly commended on account of its graceful ness and rapidity of growth. Its trunk is generally crooked, and frequently several trunks shoot up from the same root. The wood is very hard. The cold and changes of temperature do not seem to affect it, and it is highly recommended for cultivation. I have seen specimens of eight years' growth near Buenos Ayres upwards of 40 feet high, and it seems to be able to propagate itself by shoots. In Australia it is called the *bastard box.*

E. urnigera, a beautiful tree of cinnamon color, wide-spreading branches, and leaves of a grayish-green color. It endures the cold, so far as it has been tested in Buenos Ayres, most admirably.

E. globulus. This tree is not quite so hardy as some of those mentioned above, especially when it is young, but its wonderful qualities have made it, naturally, a great favorite here, and it is now to be seen growing sometimes in large plantations in all this part of the province of Buenos Ayres, its very rapid growth in two or three years producing the same effect

* The genus *Eucalyptus* belongs to the natural family *Myrtaceæ.* The Flora Australiensis describes one hundred and thirty-five different varieties, most of them valuable for different qualities, but many of them too delicate to be attempted even in Buenos Ayres. They might be grown in the State of Florida and Southern Texas.

† Irrigacion y Eucalyptus por Aberg, Buenos Ayres.

which other trees would hardly produce in fifteen years. This is the variety of *Eucalyptus* of all others most recommended for acclimation in the United States.*

HISTORY OF THE EUCALYPTUS GLOBULUS.

The *Eucalyptus globulus* is an evergreen native of Victoria in the region comprehended between Apollo Bay and Cape Wilson, and in the southern part of Tasmania. As I do not know that its history and habits are generally known in the United States, and as everything relating to the tree is therefore of interest, I have made a translation of the following from Dr. Aberg's pamphlet:

Although the *Eucalyptus globulus* had previously figured as a curiosity in some of the conservatories of Paris, we owe its introduction for general cultivation in Europe to Mr. Ramel, who, in 1856, brought the first seeds to Paris. In 1860 he obtained a larger quantity, and it then began to be cultivated more extensively in the south of Europe, not only in France and Italy, but also in Spain and Portugal. However, before this time, Sir George Grey had made large plantations at the English colony of Cape Town, in Africa. The surprising result of these plantations induced others to attempt its cultivation on a still larger scale. It is only within the last decade, however, that the qualities of the tree have been fully recognized. Now there are plantations in the environs of Toulon, Nice, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Corsica, Madrid, Lisbon, Rome, and on the Rio Grande del Sur, in all of which places it prospers admirably. Indeed, wherever the temperature does not go lower than 7° below zero, which seems to be the maximum of cold which it is able to support, its cultivation is possible. In France the limit has been fixed at 6° below zero, but in Madrid it has been seen to resist 8½°, though the temperature there is rarely lower than 5° below zero.

The tree has been planted on a large scale and with good results in Algiers, and at the universal exposition in Paris, in 1867, the trunk of a tree only eight years old which presented the respectable circumference of 5.6 feet, attracted considerable attention. In the catalogue of products of Algiers it was stated that the qualities of the tree were not at all changed by the acclimation, and that where the plantations were made in appropriate situations, it grew as rapidly, and the fiber of the wood was as good as that of Australia.

The *Eucalyptus globulus* grows with a rapidity which is surprising. The first year of its planting its usual growth is about 18.3 inches per month, when it is planted under favorable circumstances. Its increase in height is somewhat retarded during the second year, but the diameter of the trunk increases and its branches begin to spread. Owing to this rapidity of growth, forests of these trees are obtained in ten years, which, with other trees, it would take a century to form. As an example of their increase it may be stated that, in Hyéres, seeds planted in 1857 had in 1865 reached the height of 58 feet. In Toulon the plants grow to 24 feet in two years. In 1863, there were trees in Algiers of three years' growth which had attained a height of from 30 to 35 feet; and generally in that country they grow at the rate of about 10 feet each season.

In Australia, its native soil, trees of fifty years' growth attain an altitude of from 225 to 280 feet, and circumference of from 50 to 60 feet, producing colossal boards or slabs 160 feet long and 12 feet wide. One of these immence boards was intended for the Exposition, but a vessel adequate to its dimensions could not be obtained. The tree from which it was sawed was 335 feet in height, and the first branch was 217 feet from the ground.

VALUE OF THE TIMBER.

From the above it will be seen that the tree, so far as the rapidity of its growth is concerned, has nothing to be desired. The wonder is, however, that under such circumstances of growth the wood is so hard, so tenacious, and so durable; but in these respects there are but few trees equal to it. In Australia it is used for ship-building, dikes, bridges, ports, piles, railway-sleepers, beams, &c. It is also used for the manufacture of carriages and for furniture, since it has the property of tak-

* The United States are comprehended between 30° and 40° north latitude, Victoria between 35° and 48° south latitude, and Tasmania or Van Dieman's Land between 42° and 45° south latitude.

ing a polish which brings out most beautifully veins in the wood. It also burns well, dry or green, making as much heat as coal and leaving a very strong ash.

HOW THE TREE IS CULTIVATED IN BUENOS AYRES.

The tree has a perfectly straight trunk. In the forests it is rare that the branches begin below 60 or 70 feet. The outside bark is loose and shaggy, like the plane-tree. When young the trunk is full of small branches, filled with bluish-green leaves. In the first years of its growth the leaves are opposite and sessile, but as the tree assumes its true character they become petiolate and alternate, and their color changes to a much darker hue, hanging vertically and presenting their edges to the sun. Their two surfaces are exactly alike. The flowers are white and produce a capsule-seed vessel of the size of a filbert, which is full of small black seeds, similar to those of the onion. The tree will not grow from cuttings. It must be produced from the seed. These are generally planted in boxes and afterwards transferred to small beds. I do not know that here in Buenos Ayres the attempt has ever been made to plant the seeds at once in the places intended for the trees. In cultivating them upon a larger scale, I believe, however, that it would be worth while to try this method, as it would economize much time now spent in the work of transplanting them. In these cases, however, it would be necessary to properly prepare the ground, taking care to put a little mold in the hills. Two or three seeds are planted together and lightly covered with fine earth or with river sand; and then finely-cut straw is strewn over the top, as much to protect them from the hot sun as from heavy rains. In very dry seasons it may be well to water the small plants every fifteen days, but this is not absolutely necessary. The tree requires a deep soil and permeable, neither too light nor too compact, and it does not grow to advantage where there is too much humidity in the earth. The usual time for planting the seed here in Buenos Ayres is in the month of February or March. These months correspond to our September or October. But if the seeds are to remain in the places where they are planted, they should be put in the ground in the early spring. The seeds will sprout in eight or ten days. In the case of fall planting, the sprouts must be watched during the winter and transplanted as soon as the spring opens, as they thus have more time to make roots and strengthen themselves for the following winter. It is preferable to transplant them when they are small, say from 6 to 10 inches in height.

The cultivation of the *Eucalyptus*, here in the Argentine Republic, has only two difficulties to encounter; the first is the irregularity of the seasons. A hard frost out of season, which sometimes occurs, may destroy a large number of plants. It is very rare, however, that trees, which have safely passed the first winter will afterwards be killed by the frosts. Although the tender shoots may be frosted, the tree for that reason does not die; but with the first favorable weather, new and stronger shoots will start up. After having changed their leaves they seem to endure the cold much better. Indeed, it is said the frost is the cause of the tree losing its lower branches, and that in protected places they do not lose these so frequently. The other difficulty is the winds. On account of their rapid growth the trees become top-heavy with their weight of leaves; and the roots, for sustaining such an enormous pressure as a hard wind produces, are relatively very small, so that a southwest *pampero*, especially after a rain-storm, will sometimes uproot whole

plantations of them; and this is particularly likely to happen during the second year of their growth. On this account, planters here in Buenos Ayres make use of stakes and supports to guard against such danger. Where they are placed close together they assist to protect each other. Where they are planted under the lea of a belt of timber they are still better enabled to resist the winds. After the third year they will require to be thinned, and those thus cut away are here used as guards or stakes for the rest. In regard to pruning, if the tree is planted for timber it will need very little; if it is intended for shade or ornament, by a system of heading in it can be made very handsome and wide-spreading. The environs of Buenos Ayres are now full of most magnificent specimens of these trees, and some plantations further out for their size and thrift would attract attention anywhere.

MEDICINAL VIRTUES OF THE TREE.

I have said this much of the Eucalyptus as a forest or shade tree which has already become a great favorite here, and which, I believe, would be found to give equally satisfactory results in certain parts of the United States. I may add that it is considered here to be a very healthful tree. The pungency of its leaves is such that it is never molested by insects, and I believe it is the only tree grown here which the locusts (the great pests of the Argentine Republic) will not attack. It has the reputation of being an excellent destroyer or absorbent of malaria. It is stated that in Australia there are no marsh fevers where large forests of the Eucalyptus exist, and I hear they have been planted in the Pontine marshes near the city of Rome with excellent effects. In regard to its medicinal virtues, Professor Bently published a pamphlet in London, in 1874, in which he fully confirmed all that has been claimed for the tree, calling it "the fever-destroying tree," and citing many instances to prove it. Here in Buenos Ayres they bruise the leaves and bind them to the forehead for nervous headache, and I am told that the leaves are a special abhorrence of such insects as prey upon fruits and fruit trees, against whose visitations they furnish protection by being scattered thickly on the ground underneath.

The seeds of the Eucalyptus, without the delay of awaiting them from Australia, can readily be obtained in sufficient quantities from the seed stores here in Buenos Ayres, and also at Cape Town, Africa.

E. L. BAKER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buenos Ayres, August 23, 1882.

THE FRENCH TRIBUNAL OF COMMERCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL RHODES, OF ROUEN.

I transmit herewith a few words in reference to an institution in France called the Tribunal of Commerce, the most useful branch of the judiciary system of the country. It is composed of a president, judges, assistant judges, and a clerk, and is a business court, existing and organized for a speedy and equitable adjustment of differences, by which are avoided the delays and technical legal difficulties that usually accompany trials in the ordinary courts of law.

The judges of the tribunal of commerce are elected by an assembly of the principal merchants of the town. Every merchant is eligible to the place of judge or assistant judge who is thirty years old and has been engaged in commerce for five years in an honorable way. Any one who has failed in business is ineligible. This rule is rigorously observed. In other words, those who have effected a compromise in the settlement of their debts are excluded from a seat in the tribunal. This rule has a good effect in the encouragement of honest dealing, for it is one of the chief objects of ambition among merchants to be elected to a judgeship, and it is not unfrequently an important step towards other honors.

The president of the tribunal must be forty years old, and be taken from among the former judges. The judges, after election, are confirmed and instituted by the chief of the government. The term of office is for two years. The president and judges may be elected for two consecutive terms, at the expiration of which an interval of one year must elapse before they again become eligible. The clerks are appointed by the President of the Republic.

A party exists, mainly confined to the functionaries of the civil courts, which is in favor of the appointment of a legal representative of the government for each tribunal, for the enlightenment of its judges concerning points of law, but this party is in a small minority, and there is no prospect of such a change being inaugurated, it being justly feared that the presence of such a functionary might introduce into the practice of the tribunal the tedious technical circumlocution and delay to avoid which the tribunal was established.

The proceedings of the tribunal of commerce are characterized by simplicity and good sense, and although it may once in awhile slightly err as to the law (which can be rectified by the superior courts), it seldom or never does as to equity. Its reputation in the latter way renders it a popular court for fair-minded litigants, and its decisions are free from that affectation of legal learning occasionally to be found in that of the civil courts.

ALBERT RHODES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rouen, November 13, 1882.

PALESTINE.

REPORT BY CONSUL MERRILL, OF JERUSALEM, ON THE GENERAL CONDITION OF PALESTINE.

I have the honor to report that the condition of Palestine during the past year and up to the present time has been one of general prosperity. The rains, upon which everything depends, were abundant, and the crops were excellent.

JEWISH IMMIGRATION.

There has been an increase in the population of this district during the past year, which can be attributed chiefly to Jewish immigration. This increase is confined wholly to Jerusalem, Jaffa, and Hebron, and may be estimated at about 7,000 souls. Of this number Jerusalem has received 4,000 or more, Jaffa less than 2,000, and Hebron 1,000. The condition of these Jewish immigrants is pitiable. They belong to the poorer

classes, and come here to escape persecution in Russia and elsewhere. They find to their sorrow that they are not wanted here, and that the government has actually issued an order prohibiting the landing of Jewish immigrants. Very many of those who came, or who attempted to come, have gone back, while large numbers of those who remained are in distress. Much has been done to relieve their immediate wants, but still their condition is wretched.

FOOD PRICES.

There has been a steady increase in the price of food and labor, and in rents. The price of land has also advanced, and it is estimated that taking the four items now mentioned, the prices rule at about 25 per cent. higher than they did last year.

There has been an unusual demand for wheat during three or four months past, owing to the war in Egypt. The price, however, has not advanced in proportion to this increased demand, which may be explained by the fact that the country was full of wheat of the best quality.

CATTLE AND SHEEP RAISING.

The exportation of cattle of all kinds being strictly prohibited by the government, there is no stimulus to the raising of cattle and sheep. Were the exportation of cattle allowed, the raising of them would soon become one of the most important industries of the East. This country has the reputation of being a barren one, but its hills and valleys, its vast stretches of wild lands, and even what are called the "deserts," would furnish pasture ground for millions of cattle and sheep, which would find a ready market in Egypt and in other adjacent countries, or in those that are now easily accessible from this country by sea. This industry, however, is at present entirely checked.

TAXES AND REVENUE.

The income of the province of Palestine, exclusive of the revenue from customs, was, for the government fiscal year of 1881—ending with the 1st of March, 1882—100,000 Turkish pounds, or $430,000. Some of this amount was sent to Constantinople, some to Damascus, which is the military headquarters of this country, and the rest was absorbed in the internal management of the affairs of the province. It should be noticed, however, that not a dollar of this or of any other money was expended upon internal improvements.

For the same period indicated above the fees collected from the carriage road between Jaffa and Jerusalem amounted to 1,750 Turkish pounds, or $7,875. This sum is not included in the income of the province as above mentioned. Only a very small fraction of this sum is expended in keeping the road in repair, whose condition may be described as simply terrible, and serious accidents to both passengers and horses are of frequent occurrence.

PROSPERITY OF JERUSALEM.

Among matters which deserve to be brought to the attention of the Department are the signs which exist of the material prosperity of this city. Perhaps the most marked of these is the impetus that has been given to building operations during the past year. So much is going

on in this direction that a person might easily be misled into supposing that Jerusalem was a city of wealth. Whoever builds a new house, or makes repairs or additions to an old one, must first obtain a permit from the authorities. I have obtained from the office of the municipality the following list of permits for the six months of the current year, from March to August, inclusive, which may be divided into two classes:

(1.) Within the city: permits to repair, 13; for additions, 15; for new houses, 14.

(2.) Outside the city: permits to repair, 2; for additions, 13; for new houses, 51.

Total, 15 repairs, 63 additions, and 65 new houses.

With regard to the last figures (65), it is necessary to explain that in many cases several houses are built in common, or as one small block, in which case one permit covers the whole, and hence the actual number of new houses is considerably greater than the figures indicate.

It will be of interest if I state further that of these permits of all classes two-thirds were to Jews. Did they build with wealth that was accumulated here, this amount of building would indicate a normal and healthy growth that would be most encouraging. But, on the contrary, this building is largely (in the case of the Jews) done with money that comes from Europe, either as a gift or as a loan. Unfortunately, most of it comes as a gift, and, more unfortunately still, a large majority of the Jews here are willing to accept this charity. The twenty thousand Jews of this city, being chiefly poor people, are an unproductive class. A few Jews, some Moslems, and a few Europeans accumulate money in the legitimate pursuits of business and commerce, and it is these who build houses and make improvements that really add to the material prosperity of the place.

Considering all the obstacles in the way, the growth of Jerusalem during ten or more years past has been remarkable. I made my first visit to this city in the year 1869. In the years from 1875 to 1877 I spent, as some members of the department know, two full years in the work of explorations in the country east of the Jordan, and during that time I frequently visited Jerusalem. I left for America five years ago, and since that time the growth of the city outside of the walls has surprised me. Small and neat, or large and beautiful houses, built in modern style, have sprung up, and gardens of fruit and shade trees have been planted, so that the suburbs of Jerusalem are beginning to present an aspect of comfort and thrift.

Five years ago the ground where some of these houses and gardens now are was rocky and barren in the extreme. The little that has been done is sufficient to show what, under favorable circumstances, might be done for a large part of the entire country.

Notwithstanding the number of new houses erected, rents have steadily advanced during the year, and it is very difficult for foreigners to obtain suitable places for residence.

It seems to me that the matter of Jewish immigration, partly as connected with the Jewish question in the United States, Russia, and elsewhere, and for other reasons, requires a separate and special paper, which I intend to prepare at once.

HOW TO INTRODUCE AMERICAN TRADE.

The demand for American goods of all kinds is steadily increasing, although in the nature of the case this demand must be limited at least for many years to come.

When it is considered that fully one-half of the population of this city is supported by charity, and that this portion belongs to the unproductive classes, it will be seen that there can be but little demand for goods except for those of the lowest price and of inferior quality.

There should, in my judgment, be a special store opened here, or special arrangements made with some existing firm, for the introduction of American manufactures. Facts in confirmation of this view I hope to furnish to the State Department before long.

As a matter of justice to this consulate and to the consular agency at Jaffa, the department ought to be reminded of a fact of which it is already aware, namely, the difficulty under which we labor in obtaining the necessary data for making satisfactory commercial reports. Sometimes we are met in the highest quarters with an absolute refusal to communicate the information which we need. These difficulties, now only hinted at, cannot be appreciated by those who have always lived among civilized people.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Palestine to the United States during the year ending September 30, 1882.

Many articles of olive-wood work, mother-of-pearl, &c.:

Quarter ending—	Francs.
December 31, 1881	1,144.70
March 31, 1882	537.50
June 30, 1882	2,308.75
September 30, 1882	2,239.30
Total	6,230.25
Total in American gold	$1,206.65

The matter of exports has been affected somewhat by the war in Egypt, but the matter of imports has probably been affected to a greater degree, since the people of this city and province, for three months past, have lived in a state of anxiety and suspense, and consequently have not dared to make purchases abroad when both their property and their lives might at any moment be sacrificed to Moslem fanaticisms.

It will be seen from the reports of the consular agency at Jaffa that the value of American goods imported during the past year amounted to nearly $30,000.

Mr. Hardegg, the consular agent, states that "the Arab, in spite of successive years of prosperity, remains a poor man. He has neither the habit nor the desire to accumulate wealth, or even to lay up anything for future necessities. Honorable and enterprising American firms have distributed liberally at the agency valuable catalogues of their manufactures, and they will understand that the process of introducing such goods as they advertise—which would be of great benefit to the people of this country could they be brought into use here—is a slow one, when it is stated that two-thirds of the 19,500 inhabitants of Jaffa go barefoot all the year round, dress like the Philistines of old, and do not yet know the decent use of a pocket handkerchief. Even the single steam-mill, introduced fifteen years since, stands in solitary majesty, eating up one-half of the 600 tons of coal imported last year into Palestine."

SELAH MERRILL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Jerusalem, October 10, 1882.

COINAGE IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT SMITH, OF MAYENCE.

I have the honor to report that the coinage of imperial money at the Grand Ducal mint in Darmstadt, Grand Duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, amounted during the past year (1881) to 386,600 marks, all of which was in one-mark pieces, which is equivalent to $92,010.80, valuing the mark at 23.80 cents. The following have been the amounts coined during the period from 1872 to 1880, inclusive, the equivalents in United States currency being also given, viz:

GOLD.

Coinage.	Marks.	Dollars.
Double-crowns	16,766,380.00	3,990,398.41
Crowns	15,567,640.00	3,705,098.32
Half-crowns	907,290.00	215,935.02

SILVER.

Five-mark pieces	2,192,425.00	521,797.15
Two-mark pieces	1,080,216.00	257,091.40
One-mark pieces	6,837,366.00	1,627,293.10
Fifty-pfennig pieces	2,091,735.00	497,882.93
Twenty-pfennig pieces	933,755.00	222,233.69

NICKEL.

Ten-pfennig pieces	1,086,197.70	258,515.05
Five-pfennig pieces	186,487.20	44,383.95

COPPER.

Two-pfennig pieces	192,912.18	45,913,098.840
One-pfennig pieces	85,267.41	20,293,643.580

The various sums are all expressed in marks, and not by the number of pieces coined. The total amount coined amounts, therefore, in value to 47,927,671.49 marks, or $11,406,785.81.

JAS. HENRY SMITH,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Mayence, July 14, 1882.

TRADES UNIONS AND INDUSTRIES OF BIRMINGHAM.

REPORT BY CONSUL KING.

A decrease for the year in the exports from this district to the United States is found in buttons, boot materials, chains and scythes, hardware, and steel and iron. All the other items show an increase which, in value, more than counterbalances the deficiency.

In the specialties of the three agencies there is also a marked increase, most noticeable in Kidderminster, where the American trade has more than doubled in value.

TRADES UNIONS.

Many of the trades here are hampered by the trades unions. This is not the place to discuss the value of those combinations; but I may say that, in some cases at least, the English unions largely benefit Continental and American industries. In the glass trade, for instance, upon one or two departments of which I have recently had the honor to report in my dispatches numbered 64, 68, and 69, I have been told that the unions have, by raising wages, and by various restrictive rules regarding apprenticeships, &c., raised the price of glass-making so much that the English merchant can now buy a number of articles to better advantage in Belgium than he can in England; and cheap American pressed ware, such as tumblers, &c., are largely sold in the English market.

In the pearl-button trade—an important one in Birmingham—I believe the union has prohibited the use of all kinds of machinery in the manufacture, and perhaps in consequence of this the rival button centers of Paris, Lyons, Elberfeld, &c., are more prosperous than Birmingham.

Among the coal-miners in this vicinity the union is just now forcing up wages. The South Staffordshire coal trade has agreed to comply with the demands of the union, and in consequence to advance the price of coal a shilling a ton. This, of course, reacts upon other trades. Thus the iron men may be forced to raise their prices, though the demand for iron does not warrant an increase. Marked Staffordshire bars, which may be said to be the specialty of this iron district, and which are now selling at £7 10*s.* per ton, may, owing to the successful demand of the colliers' union, be raised 10*s.* or even 20*s.* per ton next Thursday, known as iron-masters' day.

The price of marked bars has varied but little for several years now, never since 1875 having been higher than £9 per ton; but formerly it fluctuated between £12 and £16 per ton. As a matter of course, the English manufacturers long to have these high prices return, and that they think they may do so was shown to me recently by a large manufacturer, who said:

> I trust you Americans mean soon to reduce your iniquitous tariff, for we shall never have high prices here in England again until you do.

A very few figures will suffice to show how important high prices in the iron trade are to this district, and, indeed, to the whole of England.

There were on the 30th of September, 1882, 937 blast-furnaces in the United Kingdom, of which 566 only were in blast. Of these 181 were in this consular district, of which 67 were in blast. When I add that in this district alone there are about 400 rolling-mills and 2,000 puddling furnaces, many of which are now idle, it will be seen that a very large amount of capital invested in iron industries must remain dead until prices are increased.

CHAIN-MAKING.

Of the various trades in and about Birmingham, that of chain-making is not the least interesting. That the trade with America shows a decrease as compared with last year, may perhaps result from the fact that chains which are not good enough to stand the British government tests

are considered good enough so sell to foreigners, a fact which foreigners are apt to resent.

I am indebted to a leading manufacturer of this district for having most courteously supplied me with a great deal of information about the chain trade, some of which I repeat below.

Dudley, 8 miles from Birmingham, is the chief seat of the industry, which is conducted in two ways. Chain cables of all kinds, from those used by small pleasure yachts up to those used by the largest iron-clads, are made in factories where the fan-blasts and cutting, scarfing, and bending tools are worked by machinery. Formerly the links were welded at the end, but side-welding is now nearly universal. This fact is significant, because the change is a result of the adoption of government tests, which end-welded links were too weak to stand.

British ships are not allowed to carry cables which have not been tested at a public testing-machine, licensed by the board of trade. A number of links of each length of chain tested are stamped with official marks, and the corresponding proof-certificate must be on board the vessel. The superintendents of most of the official machines are appointed by Lloyd's Registry, an institution which has direct interest in strictly enforcing the government conditions. Since the law requiring these tests has been in force, chains have been greatly improved in quality, and the price has increased about £3 per ton.

As I understand it, the process of testing is this: Each length of chain is subjected to what is called the breaking strain, for which one or two links are selected. Those which fail to stand this first test are returned to the maker; those which pass are again completed by the addition of one or two new links, after which they are subjected to the tensile test, the same as is used for cables intended for the royal navy. After this test each link is carefully inspected, and, if satisfactory, is stamped, as I stated above. Those lengths of chain which are rejected have a private mark stamped upon some part, known only to the inspector, and a key to this mark is sent to every other public machine to prevent a chain condemned at one machine from being tested at another. One result of this strictness is that the chief manufacturers have testing-machines of their own, where chains are tried before being submitted to the public test. Those which fail are, I have heard, sold for export; for, in this matter, the British Government does not appear to be so conscientious as in some others. Guns and gold and silver ware are also submitted to a government test, as I have hitherto had the honor to report in my dispatches numbered 42 and 66, but the law prohibits the sale of any guns or gold or silver ware, whether for home consumption or export, without the government marks. The chains for foreign consumption are, however, exempted from test.

I think that the adoption of equally stringent laws regarding chains used by American ships might protect our sailors, not only from inferior American chains, but also from such rejected chains as any unprincipled maker here would be glad to find a market for.

The wages for a full week's work in the great chain factories are from £2 to £3 per week. The rate of wages is regulated by agreement between employers and employed, with a mutually selected arbitrator. The rate cannot be changed more than once a year, and sometimes it remains unchanged for several years.

I have said that chain-making is conducted in two ways; one I have described above, and the other applies chiefly, if not entirely, to the smaller sizes of chain and to inferior cables for export. These are not made in large factories; but material is furnished to the work people,

who manufacture the chains at home, at little forges attached to their cottages, very much the same as those of the hand-made nail-makers, to which I referred in my last annual report. The whole family, man and wife, girls and boys, all work at the trade. The people engaged in this business are usually wretchedly poor. Work is irregular, because the employers who furnish the iron and pay for the work are apt to resort to many means to reduce the prices paid to the workers, such as refusing to employ them at the card rates, or paying a portion of the money due in orders upon shops where they themselves have an interest, and where the prices of goods are always high.

The work-people are naturally discontented, and frequently strike; but being, as I have said, very poor, they usually have to give in. A strike of three or four hundred of these poor people, which lasted more than a month, has just been ended by the employers yielding and agreeing to pay the regular list prices. But, judging by the past, they will only do this until winter comes, and will then begin the old system again.

The system of paying wages in orders instead of money is generally condemned by the press in this neighborhood, and an agitation is going on at this moment against it. It is known here as the truck system, and an anti-truck system league is being formed. I believe there is a law against the system, but it is often evaded.

INSPECTION OF FACTORIES.

The laws for the protection of the working classes have been greatly improved during the past few years, and are in many respects admirable.

I have made some inquiry regarding the working of the laws known as the "factory acts" and the "employers' liability act," and I find that, on the whole, both employers and employed are satisfied with those laws, and that they have caused marked improvement in the condition of the working classes. The government inspectors of factories are greatly pleased with the results. Mr. Bowling, on of the inspectors here, says:

> I think we may claim that the factory acts have been the means of achieving unmitigated good, by placing it in our power to have hundreds of workshops whitewashed every year which would otherwise have remained dirty and dark; to have numerous ventilators fixed, not before they were needed; to put a stop to much overcrowding in work-rooms; to have bad drains put in order, and nuisances removed; disinfectants used; unfit and unsafe buildings condemned; all this, and more, with the ready assistance of the sanitary authorities of the town, we have been able to accomplish. There is no exaggeration in saying that, not only physically, but morally and mentally, the condition of our factory operatives will reflect the conditions under which their daily work is done.

The employers, liability act has led to the taking of many useful precautions. In Kidderminster the Carpet-Makers' Association has insured all of its members against any claims that may arise, and has issued a series of by-laws to its employés, of which I inclose a copy.

Mr. Johnson, one of the inspectors here, thinks the act has had a marked effect in rendering machinery users more anxious to guard against accidents, and more ready to adopt any suggestions for that purpose.

Mr. Bowling, another Birmingham inspector, says that a good proof of the efficacy of the act is in the fact that during the year 1881 he had notice of but forty-one accidents, mostly slight ones, and arising from causes not connected with machinery. Yet this was in a district where there are more than one thousand places using steam or other mechanical power. That some such acts were desirable, if not necessary, may

be inferred from these remarks, especially when the facts are considered which I have tabulated below.

Number of factories in the United Kingdom, 51,924; number of workshops, 60,155.

Number of factories and workshops in the neighborhood of Birmingham.

	Factories.	Workshops.
Birmingham, district No. 1	1,570	4,843
Birmingham, district No. 2	1,013	1,535
Worcester district	482	733
Walsall district	920	864
Coventry district	1,164	2,213
Wolverhampton district	1,277	3,236

Each factory district has at least one inspector, whose duty it is to see that the conditions of the law are enforced.

THE GUN TRADE.

One of the most important of Birmingham industries is the gun trade. A very large number of shot-guns go to America from here every year. Many fine fowling-pieces are included, but still most of the guns are of a very cheap kind. A strange branch of the gun business here is the manufacture of guns for the east and west coasts of Africa. These weapons are still made in great numbers, and usually have very long bright barrels and old-fashioned flint-locks. It seems that the natives of the African coasts and interior prefer flint to percussion locks, because of the difficulty of procuring caps when the supply is exhausted. The guns for this trade are exceedingly cheap, some selling as low as five or six shillings apiece at wholesale; but every barrel has to be tested at the government proof-house, the same as if intended for the finest and most expensive of hammerless breech-loaders.

AMERICAN TRADE IN BIRMINGHAM.

Large quantities of American produce continue to be sold here, and many American "notions" are to be found. One or two firms seem to do a good business in selling American stoves and ranges; and I think that the dealers in American meat find the prejudice against it has generally disappeared, now that, for a time, the supply has been uncertain.

I have spoken before of American apples and have suggested more careful packing, but I venture to urge this again. These apples are generally admitted to be better than European apples, and the taste for them is general, yet several dealers here have told me that they must cease to deal in them, because they arrive in such a condition that it is necessary to put a price upon the few that remain sound which purchasers object to paying.

I have frequently wondered if our grapes, by careful packing, might not compete with Spanish grapes in the English markets. Enormous quantities of Spanish grapes are sold in this country. Very fair ones can be bought at retail at sixpence a pound. They come carefully packed in sawdust, but they are tasteless, and I feel sure that if American grapes could be offered for sale here in as good condition, the variety and superiority and individuality of their flavor would recommend them even at a slightly higher price.

Another matter of wonder to me is why American carriages are not generally sold here. They are so superior in beauty and gracefulness, and should recommend themselves especially in this country, where, as a rule, the roads are fine. Well-made buggies and light carriages for carrying four or six people, such as are so common at New Jersey watering places, might, I feel convinced, be made popular here. At present nearly all light or small vehicles here are two-wheeled, out of the front of which the occupant is shot, catapult fashion, whenever the horse stumbles or falls. The number of accidents of this sort is very great, and I am sure that if trustworthy statistics of them could be obtained, they would be the best advertisement a dealer in four-wheeled conveyances could wish. I may add that I know two or three of our American light carriages now in use here, and they are generally admired: but the owners have been obliged to bring them from the United States themselves.

WILSON KING,
Consul of the United States.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Birmingham, October 6, 1882.

BY-LAWS OF THE KIDDERMINSTER CARPET-WEAVERS' ASSOCIATION.

For the safety of persons employed on these works the following by-laws must be strictly observed:

1. A workman shall not use a machine or plant in which he knows there is a defect, if such use is likely to occasion personal injury.
2. No person shall attempt to clean any machinery while it is in motion.
3. The safety-guards shall be properly fixed on every machine before it is set in motion, and such guards shall not be removed while it is at work.
4. A loom shall not be turned to change gears, or for any other purpose, when any one is under it.
5. Driving straps shall not be put on or taken off by any one except the person specially appointed for that purpose.
6. No one shall clean or go under the loom while the engine is running, unless the loom be stopped and the setting-in handle securely fastened back by a safety-pin, or otherwise thrown out of gear, or the driving strap be thrown off the pulley.
7. Boys or other young persons shall in no case be allowed to oil machinery, and no machine shall be oiled while working, if there is danger in so doing.
8. The hoists shall not be worked by any one but those appointed for that purpose.
9. A workman shall see that any notice or information required by the employers' liability act to be given by him is entered in a book kept for that purpose.

MARCH 1, 1881.

RUSSIAN FISHERIES.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL STANTON, OF ST. PETERSBURG.

1.—FISH CULTURE.

Prior to 1855, no attempts at fish culture had been made in Russia. Since then there have been many establishments for artificial breeding inaugurated, and the interest in the art is steadily increasing, as is amply evidenced by the statistics of one of the leading institutions, viz: This establishment sold, from 1871 to 1880, $62,500 worth of fertilized trout and grayling spawn, and $14,000 worth of young fish of same species; the average annual sales being $6,296 worth of spawn, and $1,441 worth

of fish. In 1881 the sales were $15,000 worth of spawn and $3,550 worth of fish.

The erection of still larger establishments is projected; 1st, by the Archimandrate of the Solofski Monastery in Solofski; 2d, by the committee of the Astrakhan Fishing Union, who have determined to erect an establishment on a Volga steamer, for the cultivation of the sturgeon and white fish—*Luciotrutta leucichthys*—$35,000 having been appropriated for this purpose; and, 3d, in the Don district.

2.—FISHERIES.

Among Russia's natural resources, fish take an important position and in order to give an idea—though but an approximate one—of Russia's wealth in fish, I append a list of the leading varieties found in the various fishing districts.

a. Basin of the White and Arctic Seas.

1. *Coregonus peled*, *C. arnul*, *C. albula* and *maraena*, *C. polnur*, *C. muksun*, *C. rimba*, *C. nelma*, &c.—in all, more than thirty-five varieties.
2. The smelt, *Osmerus eperlanus*, and its relative the *Osmerus spirinchus*.
3. The salmon, *Salmo salar*, and the lake trout, *S. trutta*.
4. The cod, *Gadus morrhua*, *G. navaga*, *G. aeglefinus*, *G. virens*, and *G. saida*.
5. The flounder, *Pleuronectes platessa* and *Pl. flesus*.
6. The turbot, *Hypoglossus maximus*.
7. The shark, *Scymnus borealis*.
8. The sterlet, *Acipenser ruthonus*.
9. The Siberian sturgeon, *A. Baerii*.
10. As bait are used the *Mallotus arcticus* and the *Amodytes laucea*.

b. Basin of the Baltic Sea.

1. *Coregonus lavaretus*, *C. maræna*, *C. fera* and *C. Baerii*, *C. widegreni*, and *C. albula*.
2. The smelt, *Osmerus eperlanus* and *O. spirinchus*.
3. The salmon, *salmo salar*, *S. strutta*, and *S. salvelinus*.
4. The cod, *Gadus morrhua*.
5. The flounder, *Rhombus maximus* and *Pl. flesus*.
6. The herring, *Clupea harengus*.
7. *Maletu vulgaris*.
8. *Lucioperca sandra*.
9. The eel, *Anguilla vulgaris*.
10. The sturgeon, *Acipenser sturio*.
11. *Petromyzon fluviatilis*.

c. Basin of the Black and Azof Seas.

1. The sturgeons, *Acipenser Güldenstaedtii*, the sterlet, *A. ruthenus*, *A. schypa*, *A. stellatus*, and *A. huso*.
2. *Mugil capito*.
3. *Abramis brama*, *A. ballerus*, and *A. sapa*.
4. The Caspian herring, *Alosa pontica* and *A. caspica*.
5. The herring, *Clupea cultiventris*.

6. The anchovy, *Engraulis encrasicholus.*
7. *Leuciscus Frisii* and *L. rutilus.*
8. *Lucioperca sandra, marina* and *volgensis.*
9. *Alburniss chalcoides.*
10. The carp, *Cyprinus carpio.*
11. The barbel, *Barbus vulgaris.*
12. The flounder, *Rhombus maesticus.*

d. Basin of the Caspian Sea.

1. The sturgeons, *Acipenser Güldenstaedtii, A. ruthenus, A. schypa, A. stellatus,* and *A. huso.*
2. *Leuciscus rutilis* and *L. Frisii.*
3. *Abramis brama, A. ballerus,* and *A. sapa.*
4. *Alburnus chalcoides.*
5. The Caspian herring, *Alosa pontica* and *caspica.*
6. The white fish, *Luciotrutta leucichthys.*
7. The salmon, *Salmo salar.*
8. *Lucioperca sandra, marina* and *volgensis.*
9. The silurus, *Silurus glauis.*
10. The carp, *Cyprinus carpio.*
11. The barbel, *Barbus vulgaris.*
12. *Petromyzon Wagneri.*

Besides the foregoing, there are several species which, from their general dissemination, are of importance to the fishing industry; viz, the perch, *Perca fluviatilis,* which extends to the sixty-ninth degree of north latitude, and the *Acorina cornua,* the *Lota vulgaris,* which, excepting in the southern part of the Caspian Sea, are found everywhere. The trout, *Salmo fario,* which abounds in the smaller streams of all the basins, and the *Pelecus cultratus,* which is found in the Baltic, Black, and Caspian Seas.

From the foregoing it will be seen that the northern and southern basins, although possessing a few varieties in common, are directly distinguished from each other by the predominating species; *i. e.,* the northern seas are rich in salmon, the southern seas in sturgeon varieties. It is also evident from the list that the salt-water varieties are less important to the fishing industry than fresh-water fish. This is an important circumstance not to be lost sight of, since the preservation and development of fresh-water fish are dependent upon the condition of the rivers and the influences of cultivation. Hence the necessity for care in seeing that rivers are not polluted by factories, nor dried up by irrational drainage of swamps and destruction of forests.

To the present time no diminution in the abundance of fish is noticeable, except in the upper and middle sections of the rivers. The lower reaches are still rich in fish, and in instances, such as the Volga delta, the Kur and Siberian Rivers, still maintain a primeval abundance.

Precise data of the yield of fish are not taken, except in Astrakhan, and even here they are neither published nor particularly exact. The following statistics are to be considered as approximate only, and do not, it is thought, exceed the reality.

1.—THE NORTHERN OCEANS.

The yield of these seas, the Siberian coast excepted, is estimated to be worth a million roubles. On the Murman coast about 5,400 tons of

codfish are annually taken, also 3,600 tons of herrings of all kinds. The White Sea yielded about 3,600 tons of other fish, so that the northern waters yield in all about 18,000 tons of fish.

2.—Baltic sea.

The value of the catch in these waters is about $500,000 annually, though the quantity is smaller than that of the northern seas. In Lake Peipus about 5,400 tons of smelt are annually caught.

3.—The Caspian sea and its tributaries.

This sea, together with the Ural, Terek, and Kur Rivers and the Volga delta, yield about 198,000 tons of fish annually, with a total value of $5,250,000, according to the estimates of Mr. Baer. A report of the governor of Astrakhan for 1880 states the exports to have been 252,150 tons, with a total value of $12,468,581; and a recent table compiled by Mr. Klebnikoff gives 320,902 tons as the total export, namely:

	Tons.
Herring	126,000
Vobla, a small Volga fish	54,000
Abramis ballerus	63,000
Lucioperca sandra	36,000
Abramis brama	7,200
Carp	3,600
Silurus	1,800
Whitefish, *Luciotrutta leucichthys*	540
Sturgeon, *Acipenser huso and Belugu*	23,400
Black caviar and other kinds	5,220
Isinglass	72
Dried sturgeon sinews	72
Total	320,904

But even this figure does not represent the actual yield of the Caspian Sea and its tributaries, for in it no notice is taken of the export to the Caucasus, Orenburg, &c., or the consumption of the inhabitants, and the actual catch must, therefore, be not far from 450,000 tons annually.

4.—Sea of Azof, with the Don and Kuban.

These waters yielded about $1,750,000 to $2,000,000 worth of fish according to estimates made some fifteen years ago, but at the present day, assuming that the catch in the Sea of Azof is two-fifths of that of the Caspian, the yield must be nearly 180,000 tons of fish.

5.—Black sea and tributaries.

This sea, with its tributary rivers, hardly yields more than $50,000 worth of fish.

6.—Lakes and rivers.

These waters yield at the least 126,000 tons of fish.

The total annual yield of the waters of European Russia, including the Caspian, would, consequently, be about 720,000 tons.

Among the exports of the products of the fisheries caviar takes the lead. The export of this article during the last decenium was—

Year.	Red.	Other kinds.	Value.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	
1871	1,570	740	$373,788
1872	1,851	670	602,458
1873	2,049	726	641,397
1874	1,266	659	552,683
1875	1,345	398	526,452
1876	1,168	493	492,257
1877	540	496	500,889
1878	1,528	719	836,373
1879	2,854	776	938,172
1880	2,669	664	1,078,871

It will be seen that the export of caviar has latterly greatly increased, which is also the case with all products of the fishing industries.

During this period the fish import was—

Years.	Across European frontier.	From Finland.	From Asia.	Total.
1871	$1,960,745	$483,060	$77,109	$2,520,914
1872	3,246,322	440,727	121,748	3,808,797
1873	2,900,018	249,400	147,387	3,296,805
1874	3,241,026	257,662	156,598	3,655,286
1875	3,294,603	265,568	151,267	3,761,438
1876	2,785,760	231,040	237,813	3,254,113
1877	1,971,552	254,347	174,762	2,400,661
1878	3,438,752	143,519	160,979	3,743,250
1879	3,173,981	86,829	159,535	3,420,145
1880	3,426,868	159,299	327,657	4,413,324

Of the imports crossing the European frontier in 1880, $3,141,705 were salt and smoked herrings; $503,749 were fish preserved in oil and brine, caviar, &c.; $263,848 were salted fish, other than herring.

Of the imports across the Asiatic frontier, $261,767 were salted and smoked fish, whilst $45 represented the value of the herring import.

TRAIN OIL.

In Russian waters are found a number of mammals from whom train oil is tried out. In the northern oceans there are several species of whales, *Megaptera boops*, *Balaenopteri laticeps*, *B. musculus* and *B. sibbaldii*, the latter being most prized by the whale fishers. Norwegians are chiefly engaged in this industry, and they take annually 150 whales, which yield them about $75,000 net profit. The secondary products of this fishery, such as whalebone, &c., pay all the expenses of the trip, so that the oil tried out is pure gain.

Many walruses (*Trichechus rosmarus*) are found in Nova Zembla, Vaigatsch, Kolgnzeff, but nothing definite is known either of the number of them taken, or of the *Cystophora cristata* which is often taken on the Murman coast.

White dolphins (*Delphin apterus leucos*)—seals (*Phoca annellata*, *P. vitulina*, *P. barbata*, and *P. grœnlandica*)—are found in the northern ocean and White Sea, and in good years are taken in sufficient numbers to yield from 70,000 to 80,000 poods (1,260 to 1,440 tons) of train oil. In the

Baltic Sea and Lake Ladoga, a few seals are also taken, which yield about 12 tons of oil annually.

The Caspian Sea is much richer in seals than either of the foregoing. According to Sockoloff's estimates, there were 955,959 seals sold in Astrakhan from 1867 to 1873, or 136,994 annually. During the same period there were 11,412 tons, or annually 1,656 tons of oil sold.

In the Black Sea there are many dolphins which are occasionally caught, but the yield of oil is unknown.

The figures given are far below the reality, and it may be safely assumed that the White, Baltic, and Casparian Seas, including Lake Ladoga, and exclusive of the catch of Norwegian fishermen, will annually yield at least 2,700 tons of train oil, with a total value of $250,000.

The export of fish fat, of which Archangel is the chief seat, is subject to great fluctuations. In 1878 the export was 716 tons, valued at $57,743. In 1879 the export was 749 tons, valued at $54,581, and in 1880 the export was 400 tons, valued at $24,219.

In the preparation of train oil the whole fish of the cheaper sorts is used, whilst only the internal organs of the more valuable species are employed. In the northern waters, where there is a large catch of cod-fish, the oil is made wholly from their livers. Unfortunately the extent of this industry cannot be even approximately ascertained. In the Caspian Sea this industry is carried on on a grand scale. With the increased demand for food fish the price increased, and species which were formerly used only for their oil are now consumed as food, so that the quantity of oil produced fell off. Thus of the Caspian herring, which was formerly taken only for its oil, the catch was about 58,500 tons, 130, 000,000 herrings being taken, which yielded 2,760 tons of oil from herring alone. In 1855 they began to salt these herrings, 10,000,000 being salted down in this year; in 1856, 20,000,000 were salted; in 1857, more than 50,000,000; in 1871, nearly 140,000,000; in 1872, about 160,000,000; in 1873, 180,000,000; in 1881, 250,000,000 of herrings were caught, of which but very few were used for the production of oil.

From the Petromyzon Wagnerii, of which some 50,000,000, weighing some 3,250 tons, are taken, the yield was about 475 tons of oil.

Altogether there are from 900 to 1,260 tons of train oil tried out annually in Astrakhan.

The export of oil from Russia is unimportant, varying from 70 tons in 1871 to 180 tons in 1874.

EDGAR STANTON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
St. Petersburg, Russia, 1882.

INDUSTRIES OF ALSACE.

REPORT BY CONSUL BALLOU, OF KEHL.

I beg leave to report to the Department the following facts relative to the industries of Reichsland Alsace, by far the most important part of this consular district as regards commerce and industry. It has a population of 1,200,000 inhabitants, and more than one-half of this population, not occupied with agricultural pursuits, are in manufactories of

greater or lesser importance. Thus, according to the latest census, out of a total of 177,320 workmen employed in Alsatian factories—

The textile industries employ	69,789
Machinery	19,573
Tanneries	1,230
Paper mills	1,120
Chemical products	981

The annual production of cotton and woolen goods amounts, in round numbers, to about $6,000,000; beer, about $3,500,000; leather, about $2,000,000; chemical products, about $2,000,000.

COTTONS.

The cotton industry of Alsace has always been of the utmost importance, but of late years the manufacturers have been laboring under unfavorable circumstances. While Alsace was a part of France, and under the protection of the French tariff, which placed a duty on textiles, threads, &c., in proportion to their respective values, cost of production, price, and quality, the French market required a fine grade of cottons, and the factories were fitted out with machinery suitable for their production. After the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine to the German Empire it was found that the German market required goods of a coarser texture and cheaper quality; this necessitated removing the old machinery and replacing it with such as would answer for the manufacture of the different grades required; this has been done to a great extent, and has in the main resulted satisfactorily, although not long since the largest establishment of Alsace, the mechanical spinnery of Huttenheim, was obliged to stop payments. Other establishments have been closed, and two that were destroyed by fire have not been rebuilt. Deprived as they were of the French market, and until late without a sufficient protective tariff, this industry was languishing, and in a very unsatisfactory condition. However, the new German tariff established October, 1879, has had the effect of keeping out their great competitors, the Swiss and English manufacturers, that is, to a great extent, and last year, although the factories of Alsace produced a great many goods, they have all been disposed off, and at satisfactory prices. It can therefore be safely stated that for the first time since the late war the cotton industries of this district are beginning to regain their former prominence.

Some of the factories still retain their machinery for the manufacture of fine textures which have given to Alsace the reputation for producing goods of the finest quality. They are also participating in the general improved condition of affairs; but, under existing circumstances, and taking into consideration the distance of the sea-ports Havre, Antwerp, Liverpool, and Marseilles, which necessarily increases the cost of the raw materials; also the distance from the principal markets, which again increases the cost proportionately—considering all of these facts, the superiority of their products and the success to which they have attained must be attributed solely to the energy, activity, practical sense, technical knowledge, and rare taste of the manufacturers and their assistants.

WOOLENS.

The manufacture of woolen goods was in a very satisfactory condition prior to 1870. Since then it has undergone various changes. The high duties exacted by the French Government on woolen goods manufact-

ured in Germany are very prejudicial to it. Immediately after the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine to the German Empire, and for some time afterward, the condition of this branch of industry was bad enough; it was impossible to sell the products in Germany, and the manufacturers were compelled, in order to dispose of them, to sell at ruinous prices to compete with the opposition, notably that of Saxony, which paid much lower wages. Therefore, wages must be lowered or the mills closed. To reduce the wages of the operatives was a hard and an exceedingly disagreeable task, as the cost of living in Alsace is greater than in the north; but it had to be accomplished, and this, together with the introduction of the new tariff, has in a measure restored this industry to its former prominence. At all events, its condition is improving from year to year.

FLORET YARNS.

The manufacture of floret yarns, a combination of silk and cotton, is not a success in Alsace; the lack of suitable raw material and the large number of spindles in France and Switzerland have a damaging effect upon this line of Alsatian industry. The competing countries have every advantage:

1st. Italy, with self-producing raw materials, protected by high export duties and paying very low wages to operatives.

2d. France, with a high protective duty.

3d. Switzerland, with famous old spinneries, fine water-powers, and paying low wages.

As no attention has been paid to the general wish for the introduction of duties of entry, this branch has suffered very materially.

Two establishments have lately sold their machinery to a French manufacturer, a striking proof that this industry is in an unsatisfactory condition.

LEATHER.

The leather industry, always a prominent one in Alsace, has of late been in an unsettled state, owing partly to new opposition in the north of Germany, which has made it necessary for the tanners to sell their products at a very small profit. They admit one exception, however—Alsace has always enjoyed an enviable reputation for calf-skins. There are a great many tanneries at Barr, Lower Alsace, which produce this leather in great quantities, and until recently it was almost exclusively exported to the United States. At present but a small portion finds its way there, as American tanners now produce as fine an article. Other markets have been readily found, however, and the business still continues large. In Strasburg there is a large exporting house with an extensive tannery, the products of which have a fine reputation; they are extensively used at home and over Central Europe. There is also in Strasburg a large depot for all kinds of raw hides; many of the firms in France and Germany are supplied by them. They also have a branch in New York City, and are now exporting largely to the United States. They report their business in New York to be increasing rapidly.

MACHINERY.

The next important industry is the manufacture of machinery, locomotives, agricultural implements, &c. There has been no complaint made of any decrease in this business; on the contrary, the different

concerns have all the work they can attend to. This applies to the foundries and all iron industries.

The locomotive works of Mülhausen have lately entered into large contracts with French railway companies for the construction of a large number of locomotives. These contracts alone will give employment to a great number of people for at least two years. Not long since a firm in Alsace commenced manufacturing thrashing machines similar to those used in the United States, but they have not as yet met with much success; the people do not take kindly to them, and labor is so cheap they prefer the old method of thrashing their grain by hand.

CHEMICALS.

The production of chemicals has formerly been extensive in Alsace, but at present it is not satisfactory, owing to the opposition of the English and Austrian producers, who have the advantage of getting raw materials at much cheaper rates. Since the new tariff has gone into effect importation costs are heavy. The exports of Alsatian products have fallen off, to the advantage of Austria, where they are much cheaper, consequently the industry is languishing. Steps are being taken to lay this matter before the German Parliament at its next session.

WALL-PAPER.

The manufacture of wall-paper is confined to two establishments, one at Rupruchtsau, a suburb of Strasburg, and the other at Mülhausen. One of these establishments was destroyed by fire about a year ago, but was immediately rebuilt and new and improved machinery added. They give employment to a large number of hands, and are doing an extensive business. They do not export, as their goods are disposed of at home.

BEER BREWING.

Beer brewing has for a long time been an extensive business in Alsace, and while Strasburg was a part of France the beer manufactured there was the principal beer sold in Paris and throughout France. Its light color and mildness distinguish it from the Munich and other heavy beers of Germany. Large quantities are now exported to France, and the sale of the beer in the cities is said to be increasing. The brewing syndicate of Strasburg, composed of the leading brewers, regulates the business. Several invoices of this beer have been certified at this consulate, but it is doubtful if its consumption in the United States will ever be much greater.

During the year 1881, 14,978,855 gallons of beer were brewed; 6,753,875 gallons were exported. The importation of other beers into Alsace during that period was 17,289 gallons.

GENERAL INDUSTRIES.

I herewith present a list of the manufacturing interests of Alsace giving employment to over five pesons.

Weavers	63
Cotton looms:	
Spinneries	43
Spindles	901,236
Yarn manufactures	4
Breweries	22
Locomotive and steam-engine works	8
Factories for printing cottons	11

Foundries	10
Dyeing establishments	12
Manufacture of glass	1
Bronze foundries	3
Tanneries	11
Malt houses	3
Mills:	
Flour	160
Oil	91
Paper	2
Soap factory	1
Brandy manufactories, from potatoes	6
Starch manufactories, from potatoes	3
Paper hangings	2
Fulling mill	1
Brick manufactories	44

FRANK W. BALLOU,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Kehl, October 24, 1882.

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF BARMEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL SOHOENLE.

GENERAL REVIEW OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

The general trade and commerce in this consular district during the year 1881 has, on the whole, gradually recovered from the depression which had pressed so heavily upon it for the last few years. The year 1881 was at least a turning point in the direction of industrial improvement, and evidences of a revival of business were noticeable at almost all branches. There was an increase, however small, in the volume of business, and while small profits were still the rule, and are likely to remain so for some time to come, the feeling among manufacturers was decidedly more hopeful, and at the present writing the business outlook is reassuring. In the first place, a fairly good harvest had contributed largely to relieve the home trade; home consumption had noticeably increased, most of the people being placed in a condition to replenish their stock.

The consumptive capacity of nearly all countries had likewise advanced, especially that of the United States, and these combinations had a vivifying effect on nearly all industries of this consular district. In addition, the new German protective tariff offered most of the manufacturers of this district a fair opportunity to enter into a lively competition with foreign traders and to facilitate their sales. At any rate, it may be fairly asserted that the tariff of 1879 has established a greater and more universal equalization of the rates of customs with the neighboring countries, and has, to some extent, prevented the overflow of the German markets with their surplus products at ruinously low prices, an advantage the neighboring countries had enjoyed in former years to the disadvantage of the German manufacturers. To these facts more easy and steady business transactions may be attributed. Confidence of retaining the home markets was restored, and consequently expansion of production in most branches could be risked.

As to the retention and extension of the foreign markets there were many obstacles to overcome, and some novel systems had sprung into existence that ran counter to the interests of most of the manufactur-

ers of this district. In former years the interchange of the products of nearly all nations was regulated and facilitated by commercial treaties, and by virtue of them mercantile risks were better protected and secured. Now, autonomy of tariff legislation is the signal of the day and the watchword of almost all European countries. Commercial treaties are fast expiring and entirely disappearing, and mutual trade concessions are rapidly drifting into a retrograde direction. Thus international commerce is to be more and more impeded and handicapped. Commercial conventions of the latter date are principally based and concluded on the clause of the most favored nations, with the notification of their expiration after one year attached to, and the still existing ones with Switzerland, Belgium, and Austria afford but very little benefit to the exporters of this place. Even Austria, the political ally of Germany, could not be prevailed upon to grant any favorable concessions. She is apparently moving in the direction of commercial exclusion. Consequently, shipments to that country are embarrassed and almost barred; and in order to regain their lost markets several industrials of this district are about to establish branch manufactories in Bohemia and other Austrian provinces.

Moreover, all European continental countries have advanced their custom duties, and thereby checkmated the German import trade. With the taking effect of the *tariff général* in France an essential advance of the import duties took place, which reacted very injuriously on a good many articles of export from this district, and especially to the leading Barmen articles—braids, bindings, and trimmings. In fact, the market in France has been partially lost. Russia has decreed a general advance of import duties in 1880, at the same time stipulating their payment in gold coin, which was equal to an advance of 50 per cent. Since that time she has again raised the duties on several articles, so that export to that country has been almost rendered impossible. In addition thereto the former free admission of cast iron and iron for the use of constructors of machines has been abolished since January 1, 1881, and the hitherto established rates of duty on iron, steel, and coal have been considerably increased. It may safely be stated that this raising of duties was principally directed against German iron and coal. Of the latter Russia still imports 7,500,000 cwts. annually from Germany, but this new prohibitive duty has been imposed so as to protect the Polish coal mines and those on the river Don. This places the Germans in an unpleasant predicament, inasmuch as they lose a good business without being able to retaliate against Russia, for they cannot do without Russian grain, flax, hemp, lumber and timber, linseed and bone-black. To put a higher duty on these imports from Russia would be highly unpopular in Germany, as neither the consumer nor the manufacturer could stand such an enhancement of the cost of raw material. If Russia should persist in her exclusive policy she has adopted in the last few years, there is no doubt that German articles of export would soon be well-nigh shut out from Russia.

There does not exist any regular commercial convention between Germany and the United States, and the commercial intercourse between the two countries is carried on only on the basis of international comity. The export to the United States from this consular district has essentially increased in spite of the high import duties imposed on most of the goods from this place.

Entering into an analysis of the many industrial products of this district, I propose to touch but slightly and in a cursory way upon those articles which have undergone no, or but a slight, change since my last

annual report, while I shall dwell at some length on those that have exhibited new features.

SILK TRADE.

The general consumption of raw silk has materially increased in 1881 as compared with the preceding two years. Prices in European silk were undergoing but small fluctuations, while in Chinese silk prices advanced from 15 to 20 per cent., when the deficiency of the silk crop of 1880, in that country became known. On the whole, business in this branch continued in a rather satisfactory condition. There was a propitious increase in the sales at the Elberfeld-Barmen silk-drying establishment, and it may safely be stated that the new protective tariff has brought about for the home silk industry an increase in the working capacity. The silk production for the "campagne" of 1882–'83 promises to yield for Europe an almost equal amount as in the preceding year; from China a much larger crop is already insured, and also from Japan a good yield is to be expected.

It is well known that raw silk is apt to attract a large proportion of moisture, and it becomes therefore necessary to ascertain the exact weight of it in a perfectly dry state. To this effect, three samples are taken from each bale, and having been accurately weighed they are suspended in cylinders heated up to 257° F. for twenty minutes, at the end of which they are weighed again, and this operation is repeated until the reduction of weight by the drying process falls below one-fiftieth per cent. At this juncture the silk is accurately weighed so as to show its exact weight in a perfectly dry condition. To the weight thus obtained 11 per cent. is added, being the proportion of moisture thought admissible, and the result is taken in the trade as the standard weight of the particular description of silk. The weighing process always takes place on two pairs of scales, and under the supervision and control of several functionaries, so as to make assurance doubly sure, for the slightest inaccuracy might entail serious consequences, being multiplied hundred-fold in the aggregate quantity. The result of each individual case is set down in a register, and implicit faith is attached in the trade to the facts and figures supplied by the silk dry-house.

In the twenty-one principal dry houses of Europe as many as 30,000 tons of silk, valued at about $375,000,000, were examined from 1878 to 1880. Only two of these dry-houses are located in Germany, viz, those at Crefeld and Elberfeld-Barmen. As regards the aggregate weight of raw silk consumed in the centers of the French and German silk trade in the years 1880 and 1881, it was as follows: Lyons consumed 3,871,601 kilograms in 1881, against 3,317,688 kilograms in 1880; increase in the twelve months, 553,915 kilograms = 17 per cent. Crefeld consumed 550,339 kilograms in 1881, against 434,091 kilograms in 1880; difference in favor of 1881, 116,248 kilograms = 27 per cent. Elberfeld-Barmen consumed 243,979 kilograms in 1881, against 188,197 kilograms in 1880; increase, 55,782 kilograms = 30 per cent.

The following countries contributed to the consumption in the Elberfeld-Barmen silk dry-house during the years of 1879 to 1881:

Years.	Aggregate.	Europe's share.	China's share.	Japan's share.	East India's share.
	Kilograms.	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*	*Kilograms.*
1881	243, 979	99, 481	105, 394	22, 902	16, 192
1880	188, 197	68, 617	81, 270	18, 733	19, 577
1879	189, 769	66, 176	75, 373	21, 957	26, 263

In the consumption of silk in the Elberfeld-Barmen silk dry-house, thirty-seven cities and towns participated, with the following figures:

Places.	Italian.		Chinese.		Japanese.		East Indian.		Total.	Per cent.
	Organzine.	Trams.	Organzine.	Trams.	Organzine.	Trams.	Organzine.	Trams.		
	Kilos.	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*	
Elberfeld	37,028	4,128	28,113	27,982	2,649	7,350	3,726	403	111,379	45.65
Barmen	8,746	1,109	12,523	15,846	2,165	1,894	1,755	2,571	46,609	19.11
Lanzenberg	20,618	1,192	286	656	102	3,569	109	.....	26,532	10.87
Ronsdorf	2,548	461	5,168	1,405	96	162	3,380	.....	13,220	5.42
Thirty-three other places	20,119	3,542	3,536	9,877	2,905	2,010	3,944	304	46,239	18.95
Total	89,059	10,432	49,628	55,766	7,917	14,985	12,914	3,278	243,979	100.00

In addition, there were weighed in 1881 at the Crefeld silk dry-house for the consumption in the Elberfeld district 77,274 kilograms, as against 52,986 kilograms in 1880. In the Elberfeld-Barmen silk dry-house were weighed for various places on the left bank of the Rhine 18,024 kilograms in 1881, as against 11,278 kilograms in 1880.

In 1881 were weighed for Barmen 46,609 kilograms, as against 35,685 kilograms in 1880; consequently, in 1881, 10,924 kilograms, or 30.61 per cent. more than in 1880.

BRAIDS, BINDINGS, AND TRIMMINGS.

Signs of slight improvement in these staple articles were manifest. The export was larger, but the production still exceeded the sales. The branch continued to be injuriously affected by the disfavor of fashion, by the high entry duties imposed upon cotton and woolen yarns from England, and above all by the lively competition of foreign countries. In addition, the high import duties levied on these fabrics in the United States, France, Italy, and Russia have reduced the former exportation to these countries considerably. Moreover, in the United States, with their better educated and more intelligent workmen, and their general use of machinery, these articles are manufactured as well and sometimes better, and almost as cheap, as in this district. Manufacturers of cotton goods complain bitterly of the disastrous effect of the import duties on the finer numbers of cotton yarns, their importation from England still being a matter of necessity. This enables the English manufacturer not only to compete successfully with the German weaver, but to virtually drive him out of foreign markets, the difference in the former's favor being, at the lowest, 10 per cent.

In view of these facts manufacturers in cotton goods have recently submitted a memorandum to the Bundestag, praying for a drawback on these goods when exported. Although the branch had furnished a little more employment in 1881 than in 1880, wages could not be raised, but in some instances had to be reduced. The details of this important industrial branch were, however, fully analyzed in my special report on "cotton and woolen industries," transmitted to the department May 26, 1882, to which, as far as they relate to this subject, I would respectfully invite attention.*

* See Consular Reports, No. 23, "Cotton and Woolen Mills of Europe," page 174.

As to the manufacture of gum-elastic goods it may be said that they continued in a similar condition.

DRESS AND PIECE GOODS.

Evidences of improvement in the manufacture of silk and half silk goods were clearly perceptible in 1881, fashion was again favorable to the trade, and prices rose gradually. For the first time since a number of years success has followed closely on the heels of this industry. It may especially be noted that the workmen in this branch were fully employed during the season, and at its end even a scarcity of workmen was sensibly felt. The excessively high import duties which Austria has imposed on the various silk goods in the course of 1882 will, however, have the effect of not only curtailing, but almost crippling the export of these goods to that country. Business in silk and half silk bands for gentlemen's hats, with the United States, was rather lively, but prices were low. The manufacture of this article in the United States has, however, obtained such a solid basis and become so extensive in the last few years, that the Barmen manufacturers will likely be deprived of the American market in a time not very distant.

Trade in woolen and woolen mixed goods was rather dull. Prospects in the woolen and broadcloth trade were somewhat brighter towards the end of the year, and the export to the United States had largely increased, especially in finer qualities, and present appearances bid fair for further large orders from this country, thus keeping the establishments in good running order. The taste now runs more and more in the direction of woolen stuffs, buckskins, and nouveautés, than for plain fabrics.

In the zanella branch and in half woolen piece goods, business was not satisfactory, and the large dyeing establishment at this place was, on account of this stagnation, not fully employed. The manufacture of glazed yarn furnished less employment in 1881 than at any time previous, and prices hardly covered cost of production.

Reviewing the home trade in manufactured goods, there is no denying the fact that it was, on the whole, neither very active nor very remunerative. The main cause for this languid trade may be ascribed to the fact that the earnings of the working classes in Germany are so small and limited that, after defraying the cost of living, only a very small amount is left to them for the purchase of manufactured goods. This circumstance also accounts fully for the consumption of the cheaper and inferior stuffs, and for the failure to raise prices in these articles.

BUTTON AND BUTTON MATERIALS.

Dullness and downward tendency characterized the manufacture of stuff buttons, and towards the second half of the year it had suffered from unfavorable fashion in such a manner, that it was forced to essential restrictions of its working capacity, and had partly to turn to the manufacture of metal buttons. This latter branch was well engaged the year around, and prices obtained were rather lucrative.

DYES AND CHEMICALS.

Business in aniline colors showed a marked improvement, and proved to be remunerative to manufacturers. The large and continually increasing export of this article in the last half of the year to the United

States, China, and Japan has not only enhanced the sales considerably, but at the same time necessitated a material enlargement of most of the dyeing establishments in Elberfeld. It should be taken in consideration that aniline colors are rapidly supplanting nearly all other dyeing materials used in coloring silk, cotton, woolen, and straw goods. The German aniline, and, in general, the tar color industry has developed to such proportions that it had controlled the transoceanic markets in 1881, as in former years, and is still superior to the English and French production.

The manufacture of naphthaline colors has also been materially enlarged, and they may be considered, in every respect, a complete substitute for the much dearer cochineal.

Business in Turkish red yarn dyeing was normal, but not very remunerative, and the same may be said of the alizarine trade.

The annual consumption of alizarine on the whole globe is computed at 7,000,000 kilograms, which represents a market value of, approximately, $10,000,000. In each of the two countries, England and France, there exists but one establishment; 90 per cent. of the whole demand is covered by German houses. Of the raw materials used for the preparation of alizarine colors, anthracine is chiefly imported from England, representing a value of about $2,000,000 to $2,500,000 per annum. Caustic natron and the arsenic acids are exclusively supplied by the home country, and of anthracine small quantities were also produced within the German customs union in the last few years.

METALLURGICAL INDUSTRIES.

The iron trade has shown marked fluctuations during the year, and did not quite come up to the anticipations of the manufacturers. The demand fell somewhat below that in 1880. Iron producers, however, did not much complain of the state of their trade. In spite of the frequently fluctuating rates of exchange at the Glasgow Bourse, which, prior to the operation of the German protective tariff, exercised a predominant influence upon the German iron market, the tendency of the raw iron market in Westphalia was a steadily improving one, and there are now made strenuous efforts to rid the metallurgical industry in Germany of the vicious influences of the Glasgow Bourse.

According to the imperial bureau of statistics, the imports of iron into Germany in 1881 were as follows: Pig and scrap iron, 62,519 tons, as against 59,643 tons in 1880; manufactured iron, 10,085 tons, as against 10,090 tons in 1880. Of machinery the imports in 1881 amounted to 6,526 tons, as against 6,071 tons in the preceding year. The exports showed in the main a considerable increase, and were as follows: Pig and and scrap iron, 88,311 tons in 1881, as against 79,719 tons in 1880; manufactured iron, 194,046 tons, as against 166,978 tons in 1880; machinery, 16,650 tons, as against 15,767 tons in 1880. The largest export trade was done in wire, which rose from 26,193 tons in 1880 to 39,854 tons in 1881. Rails were exported in 1880 to the extent of 57,551 tons, and in 1881 to 62,677 tons. The total quantity of iron exported amounted to nearly 375,000 tons, being more than half the quantity of iron produced in Germany. The demand for steel was increasing, and business lively. The greater part of the cast steel was exported to Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies, and above all to Brazil, while the export of this article to the United States was on the decline on account of the high import duties. The export to Africa was active; it was, however, chiefly effected for account of English firms.

COAL INDUSTRY.

Coal trade was dragging on under a heavy pressure; contracts were entered into at very low prices, and some mines were operated even at a loss.

In the mining district of Dortmund, Westphalia, there were in operation 198 coal mines in 1881, with a yield of 23,644,755 tons of coal, valued at $27,050,825; 82,205 miners were employed; the average price per ton was $1.11¾; the annual work of one miner was 285.6 tons.

In the whole kingdom of Prussia were obtained 43,780,545 tons of coal, and in the whole of the German Empire 48,697,784 tons. The value of coal mined throughout Germany during 1881, was valued at $63,102,083. The coal mining district of Dortmund furnished employment to the following number of persons:

Description.	1881.	1880.	1879.
Workmen	82,205	79,152	76,079
Members of families	148,309	163,137	134,644
Total	230,514	242,289	210,723

In the iron and coal districts in Germany, it is anticipated that the opening of the Saint Gothard tunnel will lead to a largely extended export of those minerals from the Rhine provinces. The cost of conveying coal from Saarbrücken to Milan will be only about 22*d.* per ton, and from Essen and Ruhrort, Westphalia, about 29*d.* per ton. In cases where a minimum quantity of 100 tons is forwarded, the charge will be 9*d.* per ton less. Iron conveyed from Saarbrücken to Milan will be charged 23*d.* per ton. From Dortmund to Milan the rate for wrought iron will be 32*d.*, and for rails 34*d.* per ton. This is certainly a very low scale of charges, and assuming that any considerable amount of export of iron and coal overland to Italy has hitherto been possible, it ought now to increase considerably.

HARDWARE AND CUTLERY.

There was some improvement in this branch; the demand had slightly increased, but prices remained, in the average, almost stationary. Reports from Solinger specify trade in weapons to have been languid. Orders came in slowly, rendering the discharge of some operatives in this branch necessary. Fence and fancy weapons were in moderate demand. Business in table knives, forks, pocket and pen knives, gave general satisfaction to manufacturers. There was a fair demand, but prices could not be raised in proportion.

The market for scissors and shears was lively, and manufacturers were fully employed at lucrative prices. The demand for common and cheaper goods was comparatively larger than for finer articles.

Business in parasol and umbrella frames was very depressed and orders scarce. The discharge of some workmen in this branch and reduction of wages followed as an inevitable consequence.

TOBACCO INDUSTRY.

The tobacco and cigar industry and trade in Germany is second only to the iron trade and industry. In 1878 an official *enquête* commission brought to light the fact that there are occupied throughout Germany about 160,000 farmers, most of them small ones, in culture of tobacco,

1,000 traders in tobacco, 15,000 tobacco and cigar manufacturers, and 8,000 shops with a more or less considerable business. The shops are giving occupation to 18,000 individuals, while in the industry about 140,000 males and females are employed. Thus about 350,000 individuals are living upon this important article and its manufacture. Nearly the whole of this thriving private industry would have been destroyed if the proposed tobacco-monopoly bill had passed the Reichstag. There is, however, at present not the slightest chance for the passage of this governmental proposition, and the feeling and opposition against it in nearly all classes of the people is exceedingly strong and deep-rooted.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The consumption of American lard and American bacon has decreased considerably since the operation of the German protective tariff and the coincident rise in the price of these articles in the United States.

Tannery business was very dull, and prices for tanned hides were very low, and in some instances fell below the cost of production.

The German leather industry continues to suffer since a duty is levied on tanning material, of which the country has to import 2,000,000 cwt. annually, its own bark barely sufficing to supply the Berlin tanneries.

The manufacture of linen, although sales were normal, was not very remunerative, partly on account of the excessive competition, and partly on account of the continual decline of prices in yarn, which pressed down the fabric also. Business in linen yarn, however, was very lively, and at the present writing the demand exceeds the production. Spinneries are fully employed, and stock is fast diminishing. Any prices asked by spinners are willingly granted.

Many industrial branches in Westphalia and the Rhenish province, and especially the iron manufacturing districts, comment favorably on the effects of the tariff laws of 1879, and in some cases recommend their extension.

The annexed table shows the average prices in this consular district of the main cereals during the years of 1878–'81:

Average price per 100 *kilograms.*

Years.	Wheat.			Rye.		
	Good.	Middling.	Inferior.	Good.	Middling.	Inferior.
1878	$5 30	$5 06	$4 82	$4 23	$4 00	$3 76
1879	5 31	5 07	4 83	4 09	3 85	3 61
1880	5 87	5 63	5 40	5 13	4 89	4 65
1881	5 91	5 67	5 43	5 45	5 22	4 98

Years.	Barley.			Oats.		
	Good.	Middling.	Inferior.	Good.	Middling.	Inferior.
1878	$4 74	$4 50	$4 26	$3 78	$3 55	$3 33
1879	4 33	4 09	3 85	3 65	3 50	3 34
1880	4 05	3 81	3 57	4 10	4 00	3 82
1881	4 01	3 77	3 53	4 37	4 23	4 06

It will be observed that the prices in wheat and rye, of which large quantities have to be imported every year, had advanced noticeably since the operation of the new German protective tariff, imposing import duties on them.

WOLFGANG SCHOENLE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Barmen, November 9, 1882.

PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES OF BAVARIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL HARPER, OF MUNICH.

SALT INDUSTRY.

In Bavaria there are altogether seven salt works, viz, five state and two private. There was produced of salt in the year ending June 30, 1882, 45,854 tons, the taxes on which amounted to $733,461.26. Of this amount the two private works, one in Ludwigshafen and one in Schweinfurt, produced only 206 tons, of which 111 tons were taxed, yielding a sum of $3,167.06.

In 1880–'81 the production was 379 tons greater, and the tax amounted to $20,722.42 more than in 1881–'82.

BEET INDUSTRY.

For extracting sugar from red beets there are in Bavaria two manufactories, one in Ludwigshafen and one in Regensburg, which employ eleven steam-engines. Together they worked up, in 1881–'82, 24,689 tons of beets, and paid taxes to the amount of $94,015.71. From these taxed beets 3,371 tons of sap was made.

From the sap 2,550 tons of raw sugar and 793 tons of molasses were produced. There remained in the still-press nearly 10,000 tons of refuse.

For producing 100 pounds of sugar 975 pounds of beets are required.

TOBACCO INDUSTRY.

The number of tobacco planters from July 1, 1881, to June 30, 1882, in Bavaria, was 27,507, viz, 22,427 in the Palatinate, 3,557 in Middle Franconia, 1,141 in Lower Franconia, and 382 in other Bavarian districts.

The number of plots planted with tobacco was 50,947, the total amount of surface being 15,988.24 acres.

In the Palatinate 43,347 plots, covering 12,955.12 acres; in Middle Franconia 5,450 plots, covering 2,873.13 acres; in Lower Franconia 1,715 plots, covering 149.79 acres; and in other Bavarian districts 435 plots, covering 10.20 acres.

Tobacco was harvested in a dry state in the open air, and amounted to 13,212 tons in all, viz, 10,894 tons in the Palatinate, 2,207 tons in Middle Franconia, 104 tons in Lower Franconia, and 7 tons in other Bavarian districts.

The average price of 100 pounds of tobacco was $7.58; the total value of the harvest being $2,004,547.

The amount of tobacco tax levied upon the planters was $695,790.14, and the ground tax $1,869.73, total $697,659.87. To this is to be added a tax amounting to $229.19 on tobacco imitation.

In 1880–'81 the number of tobacco planters was only 3,398, the number of plots was 7,353 less, and the area of surface 1,981.94 acres less than in 1881–'82. The harvest produced 2,142 tons less than in 1881–'82, the value being $101,477.49.

The amount of tax received in 1881–'82 shows an increase of $288,535.73.

MANUFACTURE OF PLAYING CARDS.

There were in Bavaria sixteen playing-card manufactories in 1881–82, and eighteen in 1880–'81. In 1881–'82 there were manufactured 668,467 packs, containing 36 cards each, and in 1880–81, 680,000 packs.

Last year the tax yielded $95,475.37, and this year $90,101.33.

There were exported in 1881–'82, 299,164 packs, of which number 270,820 packs contained more than 36 cards.

The tax on playing cards yielded in 1880–'81, $28,708 15, and in 1881–'82, $27,096.30.

JOSEPH W. HARPER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Munich, October 28, 1882.

TEXTILE PRODUCTIONS OF CREFELD.

FROM A REPORT PREPARED BY THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE FOR CONSUL POTTER.

In the circular of the Department, dated December 20, 1881, received at this consulate on the 14th of April, 1882, certain information, for the benefit of New England manufacturers, was requested concerning the cotton and woolen industries in the principal European trade centers.

In this consular district there are no distinct cotton or woolen manufactories, but cotton yarns are extensively used in the production of an almost endless variety of beautiful textile stuffs composed of silk and cotton mixed in various proportions.

With a view of collecting authentic information regarding the peculiar manufactures of this district, I addressed to the chamber of commerce of Crefeld, and to one of the largest and best known textile manufacturing companies of Germany, a series of questions. A request for certain information regarding processes of manufacture was also made to the director of the "Königliche Höhere Lehranstalt für Textil-Industrie,"* of Crefeld.

I have thought that, perhaps, the most interesting and reliable way of communicating the information obtained would be by giving the questions and answers thereto just as they were transmitted to this consulate, covering the following information:

Different kinds of fabrics produced—From what source the raw and partly prepared material is obtained; in what condition delivered—Cost of transportation—Total amount of capital invested—Number of looms employed, and what kinds—Amount of fabrics produced on hand and power looms—Quality of goods produced—Cost of production by different methods—Where the operatives live and work—Average rate of wages paid on different kinds of products—Hours of labor and average earnings per week—Manner of living and social and moral condition of the operatives—Total number of persons employed—Proportion of cotton mixed with silk—Quality of goods produced in Crefeld, compared with similar productions in other European states—Total value of products for year ending December 31, 1881—To what countries exported—Return on capital invested, &c.

* Royal high school for textile industry.

REPORT OF THE CREFELD CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Hon. J. S. POTTER,
United States Consul, Crefeld:

SIR: In reply to the various questions addressed to the chamber of commerce, the following answers are returned:

Question 1. What are the different kinds of textile fabrics produced by the manufacturers of Crefeld?

Answer. In *velvet goods*, with silk or chappe face, the following varieties:

1. Plain velvets.
2. Fancy velvets.
3. Plain plushes.
4. Fancy plushes.
5. Plain velvet and plush ribbons.
6. Fancy velvet and plush ribbons.

In *silk piece goods* as follows:

Dress goods:

1. Cachemire, all silk.
2. Satin de Chine.
3. Plain satins of various kinds.
4. Fancy satins in great variety.

(2, 3, and 4 are composed of all silk, and silk and cotton mixed.)

Trimming goods:

1. Matelassé, trimming for cloaks, &c.
2. Matelassé, in jacquard weaving.
3. Satin, cotton-shot, black and colored, in a great variety of styles and quantities.

Tie, or cravat goods:

Plain and fancy, all-silk and silk cotton-shot, in varieties more numerous than are produced in any other part of the world.

Umbrella and sunshade goods in all-silk and silk cotton-shot varieties:

1. Cote satins.
2. Serges and taffetas.
3. Satin de Chine.
4. Satin cotton-shot.

Mantle goods, in all-silk and in silk cotton-shot:

1. Matelassé (fancy).
2. Damassé (fancy).

Question 2. From what source is the raw material for such fabrics obtained?

Answer. Silk is imported from Milan, in Lombardy, and from Turin, in Piedmont, in Italy; French silk from Lyons; and Japanese and China silk from London.

Chappe, or spun silk is imported from Italy, Austria, Switzerland, and Alsace (Germany).

Cotton yarn is imported from Manchester, England. Coarse counts (single) are obtained, to some extent, from Germany (Monchen Gladbach and Alsace).

Silk and chappe are imported duty free; cotton yarns pay an import duty ranging from 12 to 39 marks ($2.85 to $9.25) per 100 kilograms (222 pounds), according to number, and whether it is single or two fold; three or more fold yarns pay 48 marks ($11.45) for all numbers per 100 kilograms.

Of the total amount consumed in Crefeld, in 1881, the following percentages of silk from different localities, were used:

	Per cent.
Of Lombardian silk	63.58
Of Piedmont silk	11.04
Of French silk	.88
Of Asiatic silk	24.50

The total amount of silk, spun silk (chappe), and cotton yarns consumed in the year 1881, was as follows:

	Pounds.
Pure silk, 431,552 kilograms, or	958,045
Spun silk, 215,555 kilograms, or	478,532
Cotton yarns, 940,014 kilograms, or	2,086,831

Question 3. Is the silk chappe and cotton used brought to the manufacturers here in a raw or prepared condition?

Question 4. If not raw, to what extent is it prepared?

Answer. It comes in a partly prepared condition, as far as the thread is concerned, viz:

Silk, doubled and twisted to organzine (warp) and trams (weft).

Chappe, doubled, twisted, and gassed. It is, however, gassed here, sometimes, a second time after being dyed.

Cotton yarn, spun, single, double or more fold, and gassed when wanted in that condition. Nearly all two-fold yarns used in Crefeld manufactories are gassed.

Question 5. What is the rate and cost of transportation from the country of its origin to the doors of the manufactory?

Answer:

SILK.

By "quick freight" from Milan: 45 francs ($8.69) per 100 kilograms.
By "quick freight" from Turin: 51 francs ($9.84) per 100 kilograms.
By "quick freight" from London: 9.50 marks ($2.26) per 100 kilograms.
By "slow freight" from Milan: 31 francs ($5.98) per 100 kilograms.
By "slow freight" from Turin: 32.50 francs ($6.27) per 100 kilograms.

An export duty is levied on silk in Italy amounting to about 31½ francs ($7.43) per 100 kilograms. The whole charges for freight, insurance, duty, carriage, &c., amount to about 75 francs ($14.48) per 100 kilograms. In most cases, however, the manufacturers purchase the silk, to be delivered in Crefeld, at prices which include all these charges.

CHAPPE.

From Basle, Switzerland, per quick freight, the cost is about 13 marks ($3.09) per 100 kilograms.

COTTON YARNS.

From Manchester, England, the cost of freight is about 6 marks ($1.43) per 100 kilograms.

Question 6. Is such material pure or mixed, or in any way adulterated?

Answer. The material, in the condition in which it is purchased for use in Crefeld, is pure, and in no way adulterated.

Question 7. What is the total amount of capital invested in textile productions in Crefeld, including land, buildings, machinery, and tools?

Answer. It is impossible to answer this question, as the trade is almost wholly in the hands of private concerns. There are no incorporated companies, based upon shares, the value of which is known. There are but very few large mill-buildings, for hand-loom weaving does not need them. In most cases the looms belong to the weavers, and are operated in their dwellings, which are scattered throughout the city and the neighboring towns and villages. For these reasons the capital invested cannot be given, even approximately.

Question 8. What is the total number of looms employed of all kinds?

Answer. Please see table further on in this report.

Question 9. What kind of looms are used and the proportion of each kind?

Answer. Hand-looms constitute 95 or 96 per cent. of the whole number in use, and power-looms not more than 4 or 5 per cent.

Question 10. What is the total number of hand-looms, and how many power-looms are in use in this district?

Answer. About 31,000 hand-looms and about 1,500 power-looms.

Question 11. What proportion of the textile products of this district are made on power-looms and what proportion on hand-looms?

Answer. On hand-looms are produced about 80 to 85 per cent. and on power-looms about 15 to 20 per cent. of the entire production.

Question 12. By which process (power-looms or hand-looms) is the best quality of goods produced?

Answer. For best qualities of goods hand-looms are preferable, for the present. Inferior and middle qualities of velvets and plushes can be made on power-looms, but these looms are not yet perfect enough for the production of first-class goods. The best qualities of silk piece-goods are always made on hand-looms.

Question 13. What is the relative cost of production by the two methods?

Answer. This question is very difficult to answer. Goods made on power-looms are produced at less cost; in velvets about 15 per cent. nominally. But on power-looms a great many faulty pieces are made, which reduces this percentage considerably. In silk piece-goods there is not very much difference in the cost of production.

Question 14. Where are the hand-looms generally located, and by what class of people are they operated?

Answer. Only a small percentage of the looms engaged for Crefeld manufactures are located in Crefeld, owing to the high cost of living there; scarcely a hundred velvet-looms and only a few thousand stuff-looms are to be found in the city. The other looms are located in the neighboring small towns and villages, where living is

much cheaper. A great many weavers live in the country, where rent is very low, and they generally till a small piece of land or a garden for their own use, which they own or hire, for a nominal sum, it being for the interest of the employer to promote their comfort and contentment, with a view of retaining permanently skilled and tested workmen.

Question 15. What is the average rate of wages paid? Does the rate differ in different departments of labor? If so, how?

Answer. The daily wages for the master operator of a stuff-loom averages about 2.50 to 3 marks (60 to 70 cents) per day; for a velvet-loom about 2 marks (45 cents) per day. In many cases one weaver has several looms besides the one he works on himself, and in such cases he is entitled to one-third of the wages of an apprentice.

The rate of wages depends upon the quality, style, and width of the goods. There exists a list of wages compiled and agreed upon by manufacturers and weavers in 1848, but at present, although this list is still considered as a basis, the wages are substantially ruled by the law of supply and demand. When trade is extremely dull, very low terms are sometimes offered and accepted. When business is brisk, wages considerably higher than the list rate have to be paid.

Question 16. What number of hours per week do operatives work?

Answer. As hand-looms are worked by the weavers in their own dwellings the hours of labor per week cannot be given. The weavers are, in this respect, their own masters.

Question 17. What are their average earnings per week?

Answer. Stuff-weavers earn about 15 marks ($3.50); velvet-weavers, about 10 to 12 marks ($2 to $2.50) per week, on one master-loom. In some cases an industrious and skilled weaver of jacquard goods will earn from 30 to 50 marks ($7 to $12) and even more in one week.

Question 18. What is the manner of living among hand loom weavers, and what, generally, is their social, moral, and educational condition?

Answer. In many cases the wives and grown-up children of the weavers, by working in their own homes, are able to render valuable assistance on the looms and in providing for the general household; but these children, who are generally educated by great sacrifices on the part of the parents, leave their homes—very often at a comparatively early age—to establish a household of their own. They usually marry at the age of eighteen and nineteen, and soon have a family to provide for. Destitution follows, frequently, as a consequence, and the local authorities have to provide for their support. As a rule, the weavers, as a class, are not of a saving disposition. In bad times they can scarcely live from the proceeds of their wages; when work is plenty and wages high they live accordingly.

Of course there are many honorable exceptions to this rule.

Question 19. What is the total number of persons, of all classes, employed in textile productions by Crefeld manufacturers?

Answer. Should this question be intended to include all people of the assistant industries, such as dyers, finishers, reelers, warpers, manufacturers of shuttles, &c., it will be about correct to calculate two persons to each loom, or for the district of the Crefeld Chamber of Commerce, in the year 1881, about 65,000, and, according to our estimate, about 130,000 for the entire silk industry of Germany. These figures do not include the office clerks, &c.

Question 20. In silk and cotton mixed goods what, generally, are the proportions of each material used?

Answer. Percentages cannot be given. It depends entirely on styles and quality of the goods.

Question 21. Information regarding the quality of goods produced in this district, as compared with the production of similar goods in other European countries, is very desirable.

Answer. Crefeld is well able to compete with all silk manufacturing countries in cotton-shot goods. These styles may be considered a specialty in Crefeld. In these, however, it has a keen competition in Zürich, Switzerland, where wages are lower and where scarcely any import duty has to be paid on cotton yarns.

Question 22. What is the total value of textile products of this district for the year ending December 31, 1881, or for the year covered by the latest information in your possession?

Answer. Please see table further on in this report.

Question 23. In what countries are such products consumed or to what countries exported?

Answer. Please see table further on in this report.

Question 24. Is the business of textile productions in this district decreasing or increasing?

Answer. After many years of bad trade, business is steadily increasing.

Question 25. What, in this district, is considered a satisfactory return on the capital invested in the production of textile fabrics?

Answer. It is impossible to ascertain, as we have to deal with private undertak-

ings, and not with companies based on shares, and who issue yearly balance-sheets showing dividends declared, &c. On the whole, the capital engaged is not large in proportion to the production. The competition is very sharp, and an extensive business is done with a very small margin to the manufacturers.

Table showing the variations in the average number of looms in operation during the years 1878, 1879, 1880, *and* 1881, *and the kinds of goods produced in Crefeld and its vicinity.*

Kinds of goods produced.	Number of looms, 1878.	Number of looms, 1879	Number of looms, 1880.	Number of looms, 1881.
Velvets and plushes	14,596	16,456	17,464	15,716
Velvet ribbons	492	250	242	240
Silk and half silk goods	13,645	15,845	15,196	16,125
Silk and half silk ribbons	176	88	106	45
Total	28,909	32,639	33,008	32,126

Table showing the total value of textile fabrics manufactured in this district during the years 1878, 1879, 1880, *and* 1881; *also, the countries to which they were exported.*

To what countries exported.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
	Marks.	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*
Germany	20,599,565	23,413,409	23,831,708	28,387,940
Austria-Hungary	1,411,750	1,208,446	1,056,230	1,059,250
England	23,755,875	25,024,370	23,731,620	20,960,920
France	4,122,810	3,644,355	3,906,030	4,800,450
Other European countries	2,582,340	2,877,900	2,835,420	3,576,420
America (United States principally)	13,007,350	14,202,042	19,120,750	17,743,610
Total	65,479,690	70,370,522	74,481,758	76,528,590

THE MANUFACTURE OF SILK GOODS.

Description of the largest manufactory in Germany—Method of doing business—Selections of districts for the location of manufactories—Cheap coal—Advantages of location in securing skilled labor—"House industry" and hand-loom weaving—Power-looms and quality of goods made thereon—Kinds of looms used—Number of operatives employed—Working hours in Switzerland and Germany—Factory customs—Fines for bad and premiums for good work—How to secure good silk—Amount and kinds used—Reasons why a description of plants and buildings cannot be given—Elements in costs of manufacture—Taxes—Rate of interest—Dividends—Influence of fashion in producing losses—Kinds of goods made and kinds of yarn used—Grade and cost of English cotton yarn—Duties on same—Proportion of cotton yarn used in different qualities of "half silk" goods—Goods made for export to New York—Manner and cost of packing and labeling—Description of some of the machinery used, &c.

REPORT.

[Submitted by the largest manufacturing company of silk and silk and cotton mixed goods in Germany on the Crefeld silk trade; also regarding the business of their own manufacturing establishments located in different parts of the Continent.]

Hon. J. S. POTTER,
United States Consul, Crefeld:

SIR: In responding to your wishes for information to be used in a report upon the silk industry embraced in the consular district of Crefeld, we think we can serve your purpose best by giving a picture based upon the questions you have propounded of our own business and manufacturing operations in Crefeld and other parts of Germany, and in Switzerland and Italy.

With a view of attaining the highest degree of economy in our manufacturing operations, we have selected districts for the location of our manufactories which are particularly well adapted to our business, and where we find an experienced and abundant working population, from which we can obtain the skilled labor necessary to produce the special articles of our trade. As our establishments are numerous and widely separated, our business is necessarily conducted largely under the supervision of agents.

Our largest establishments for *hand-loom weaving* are located in Crefeld and in Zurich.

Hand-loom weaving may be properly called "house industry," for the reason that the looms employed are located in the dwellings of the weavers, and generally belong to them. Crefeld and Zurich are the principal centers for this peculiar and long-tested method of manufacturing textile stuffs.

In the vicinity of Moers, near Crefeld, and in Egg, in the canton of Zurich, we have large mills for weaving; we have mills also in Sonneburg and Gleissen (Prussian province of Brandenburg), and two smaller establishments in Metelen and Horstmar (Westphalia).

The largest of these establishments is located in Moers; it is operated by steam power and consists of 400 power-looms. The Ruhr coal district being in the immediate vicinity, we are able to procure our coals, delivered at the mills, for 9.60 marks, or $2.28 per ton.

In the other above-mentioned establishments and those in the neighborhood of Crefeld and Zurich we employ about 2,500 looms, of which the greater number are of the newest Lyons construction, or those made on our own system.

It is difficult to give, accurately, the number of persons engaged in our interest, as many of the preliminary preparations for weaving, such as winding, warping, &c., give employment to a large number of persons outside of our establishments. At a minimum we may place the total at 6,500, to whom we disburse annually about 3,000,000 marks for wages and salaries.

The daily working time in Switzerland is, by law, fixed at eleven hours. In Germany it is somewhat less.

The weavers are subject to fines for producing faulty work. The foreman is also made responsible for similar results and is subject to penalties. On the other hand, premiums are paid to those who excel in producing good work.

All money accruing from fines is paid into a fund, established in favor of our sick workmen in all our establishments.

In order to provide ourselves always with the best quality, and of the weight and twist desired, we have established large silk mills at Vicenza, and an establishment for silk-twisting at Rasica, near Bergamo, in Italy.

Our production of silk, spun from cocoons raised in the best districts in the surroundings of Verona, amounts to about 20,000 kilograms, or 44,000 pounds annually; and of thrown silk, made from singles, which we buy to the amount of about 35,000 kilograms, or 77,000 pounds. These quantities are for our own use entirely. The entire quantity of silk used in our weaving establishments amounts to about 90,000 kilograms, or 198,000 pounds, and that of cotton yarn to about 120,000 kilograms, or 264,000 pounds.

There are about 1,500 persons employed in our two establishments in Italy, so that, on the whole, we furnish occupation to more than 6,500 people.

For the reason that our establishments are numerous and located widely apart in different countries, it will be difficult to comply with your request and give a description of plants and buildings. The best information we could give upon that subject would be of little interest and have very small value as data for American manufacturers or others to act upon.

It will be readily observed that we have to deduct for depreciation and other expenses a greater percentage, yearly, from the value of those buildings and works which are situated in small places and erected for special purposes, than from our larger business buildings in Crefeld and Zurich, upon which, should occasion require, we could realize conveniently at any time. The situation and location of such buildings and plants have very much to do with their intrinsic value, and you will thus understand the difficulty in giving certain important elements in the information which you desire. For instance, we purchased the water-power for our great spinning establishments in Italy for a certain sum, while for similar power and conveniences in Switzerland we had to pay two or three hundred per cent. more.

The foregoing remarks apply to such machinery as must be considered as a part of the establishments, and which could only be sold advantageously with the buildings.

There are no taxes on machinery and but a very small one on buildings. As a general rule, the estimated income of each citizen is only taxed. The percentage of such tax varies very much, particularly in Crefeld, where a great deal of money is wanted for municipal purposes, and, therefore, the taxes here are very high.

The usual rate of interest for capital is 5 per cent. per annum. A dividend of 10 per cent. on capital invested in manufacturing establishments is considered here as a large return. This percentage, however, is never reached in our transactions with America. The sudden changes for fashion there often subjects us to serious losses. There are also periods, during nearly every year, when, in order to keep our operatives employed, we are obliged to keep our manufactories running at a loss, thus reducing and often entirely obliterating, the profits of better periods. These drawbacks

are incidents of the fickleness of American markets regarding the textile productions of European silk manufactures.

The goods we make may be classified as plain and fancy, black and colored, all silk, and half silk, and which are used for dresses, mantles, linings, trimming, and for millinery purposes.

For the various styles of half-silk goods we use cotton yarn of twofold, gassed, from No. 30 to No. 220, which we import exclusively from England. The average price we pay for cotton yarns are as follows:

For one English pound:

	s.	d.
No. 30	1	2
No. 40	1	5
No. 50	1	7
No. 60	1	9
No. 80	2	3
No. 100	2	7
No. 120	3	3
No. 140	4	4
No. 160	5	6
No. 180	6	6
No. 200	7	6
No. 220	9	2

To which has to be added 1 per cent. commission and charges for packing. The freight from the mill to our Crefeld manufactory amounts to 3.10 marks (75 cents) per 100 kilograms (220 pounds); we have also to pay an import duty on cotton yarns, as follows:

For No. 40, 21 marks ($5) per 100 kilograms.

For No. 50 and 60, 27 marks ($6.70) per 100 kilograms.

For No. 80 to 220, 39 marks ($9.25) per 100 kilograms.

The average charges for dyeing are: For black, .50 mark (12 cents) for each pound; for colors, 1.20 marks (27 cents) for each pound.

There is a difference in the price of gassed and ungassed yarns, ranging from 1*d.* to 6*d.* for one pound, according to the number of the yarn. We use only gassed yarns.

In inferior qualities of half-silk goods the weight of cotton consumed therein amounts to about three times the weight of silk used therein, and in superior qualities to about double weight of silk.

Goods made for export to England, New York, &c., are packed in wooden cases lined with oil-paper; for larger sea passages the cases are lined with tin.

Packing charges, without tin-lined cases, amount to about three-quarters of one per cent. on the value of the goods. The manner of labeling and packing the goods varies largely, and depends entirely upon the taste and directions of our customers.

Some of the machinery used in our establishments is as follows:

1. Winding frame, for winding silk and cotton on to bobbins.

2. Warping frame, for putting the threads of the warp into the desired position. There are three systems for doing this work: The Lyons system, with horizontal frame; the Crefeld system, with vertical frame, and the Swiss system.

3. Spooling machine, for winding the weft upon little tubes to be inserted into the shuttles.

4. Silk-weft cleaning machine, for taking off the knots and snarls, and other irregularities on the silk thread.

5. Beaming machine, to wind the warp on to the beam of the loom.

6. Weaving loom with arrangements for combing plain goods and with combs and jacquard machine for fancy goods, and for opening the warp, or rather for drawing up and down the "bed-threads" in the manner required by the kind of goods desired to be produced.

7. Dressing machine, for dressing the goods and closing up the little spaces betwen the threads.

8. A machine for winding the goods on to a cylinder for the purpose of giving a smooth and soft appearance to such pieces as require such treatment.

COMPOSITION OF TEXTILE FABRICS.

The following tables, by request, were kindly prepared by the professors of the "Royal High School for Textile Industry," at Crefeld, and give the number of threads to one square centimeter contained in the warp and filling of different kinds of textile goods. The information they contain may be of possible service to manufacturers and custom-house officials in the United States.

COTTON FABRICS.

Name of the fabric.	The number of the yarn used in the—		Number of warp threads in one centimeter or 0.3937 inch.	Number of filling threads in one centimeter or 0.3937 inch.	Method of binding.
	Warp.	Filling.			
Muslin	Water No. 24	Mule No. 16	22	20	Taffeta.
Apron stuff	do	Mule No. 32	36	30	Do.
Beaver or castor cloth	do	Mule No. 4	22	13	Twill.
Calico cloth	Water No. 20	Mule No. 16	34	24	Do.
Cotton bed-covers, &c	do	Mule No. 5	24	24	Do.
Fustian	do	Mule No. 6	24	16	Do.
Tricot cloth	do	Mule No. 8	20	20	Do.
Rib	do	do	16	20	Taffeta.
Piqué	do	do	24	18	Fancy.
Checked fustian	do	do	24	24	Twill.
Cords	do	Mule No. 10	24	52	Velvet like striped.
Striped cloth	Water No. 30	Mule No. 36	31	30	Taffeta.
Coarse woolen cloth (Kalmuck)	Water No. 14	Mule No. 3½	20	24	Twill.
Double-faced	Water No. 6–10	Mule No. 28	24	6	Taffeta.
Hollow woven stuffs	Water No. 4–10	do	20	16	Do.
Piqué, matelassé	Water No. 30	Medio No. 40 and filling mule No. 4½.	33	39	Fancy.
Snake, piqué	Water No. 50	Medio No. 60 and filling mule No. 14.	45	72	Do.
Gauze	Upper warp No. 40 and twist.	Medio No. 40	21	30	Gauze.
Shirting	Water No. 12	Mule No. 16	23	24	Taffeta.
Cambric	Mule No. 36	Medio No. 40	24	28	Do.
Cotton batist	Medio No. 90	Cotton yarn No. 120	40	50	Do.
Jaconet	Medio No. 80	Cotton yarn No. 100	51	42	Do.
Muslin	Cotton yarn No. 147	Cotton yarn No. 176	39	39	Do.
Canvas	Medio No. 6–30	Medio No. 6–30	6–12	6–12	Do.
Tulle	Cotton yarn No. 120	Cotton yarn No. 120	12–27	8–26	Do.
Ticken	Water No. 20	Mule No. 40	46	36	Twill.
English leather	Water No. 30	Medio No. 76	33	74	Satin.
Moleskin	Water No. 14	Medio No. 22	23	97	Do.
Lasting	Water No. 24	Medio No. 28	40	26	Do.
Trousers cloth	Water No. 2–8	Mule No. 4	17	20	Twill.
Do	Water No. 2–10	Upper filling No. 18 and 10, twisted; under filling mule No. 3½.	16	32	Do.
Do	Water No. 14	Mule No. 8	36	38	Do.
Do	Water No. 2–16	do	21	40	Do.

HALF-COTTON FABRICS.

Mattress-ticking	Water No. 20	Tow yarn No. 25	44	26	Twill.
Half linen	Water No. 14	Linen yarn No. 18	20	18	Taffeta.
Trousers cloth	Twine No. 4	Mule No. 7	22	40	Satin.
Taffetas	Cotton yarn No. 2-180	Mohair No. 45 Mule No. 24	30	26	Taffeta.
Ecossais	Cotton yarn No. 2-70	Weft No. 45	25	22	Do.
Dress cloth	Cotton yarn No. 2-50	Weft No. 40	24	22	Do.
Thibet	Cotton yarn No. 2-40	Combed yarn No. 90	22	78	Twill.
Italian cloth	Medio No. 40-60 Chappe No. 2-70	Combed yarn No. 36 Combed yarn No. 10	37 75	36 42	Satin.

SILK FABRICS.

Name of the fabric.	Warp.	Filling.	Number of warp threads in one French inch (38⅛ French inches equal to 41¼ English inches).	Number of filling threads in one French inch (38⅛ French inches equal to 41¼ English inches).	Method of binding.
Taffeta	Milan org., 21 den	Milan trame, 26 d	186, single	112, threefold	Taffeta.
Cachemire (cashmere)	Milan org., 22 den	Japan trame, 30 d	336, single	72, twofold	Do.
Épinglé	Milan org., 20 den	Milan trame, 26 d	191, single and double	64, twofold and sixfold	Do.
Faille à coton	Milan org., 21 den	Cotton yarn, No 120–60	175, double	48, fourfold	Do.
Taffeta, striped	Milan org., 22 den	Milan trame, 30 ok	225, single	120, double	Do.
Twill	Milan org., 22 den	Milan trame, 26 ok	279, single	136, double	Twill.
Serge	Milan org., 22 den	Milan trame, 40 ok	217, single	120, single	Serge.
Satin	Milan org., 22 den / 24 den	Cotton yarn, No... 120–60 / 60–30	310, single / 331, single	120, single / 96, double	Atlas.
Royal	Milan org., 24 den	Japan trame, 28 ok	434, single	72 sixfold	Royal.
Ottoman	Milan org., 23 den / 24 den	Japan trame, 28 ok / Cotton yarn, No. 120–60	434, single / 362, single	104, twofold / 88, twofold	Ottoman.
Armure	Milan org 22 den. / 26 den.	Cotton yarn, No. 60–30 / Cotton yarn, No. 60–30 / Cotton yarn, No. 60–30	248, twofold / 403, single	112, single / 72, twofold / 100, single	Armure.
Satin à travers	Milan org., 20 den	China trame, 40 den	310, single	110, extra	Satin.
Double satin	Milan org., 22 den	Cotton yarn, No. 180–90	744, single	112, twofold	Do.
Double satin and serge	Milan org., 24 den	Cotton yarn, No. 140–70	656, single	108, twofold	Satin and serge.
Gros de Naples	Milan org., 26 den	Milan trame, 30 den	196, twofold	80, fourfold	Taffeta.
Poult de soie	Milan org., 23 den	Japan trame, 36 and 34 den	180, twofold	72, sixfold	Do.
Gros d'Afrique	Milan org., 22 den	Milan trame, 28 den	184, single	100 threads; 4 threads, twofold, Milan trame; 1 thread, fourfold, Japan trame.	Do.
Turquoise	Milan org., 24 den	Cotton yarn, No. 140–70	264, single	52, fourfold	Do.
Gaze urie (plain gauze)	Milan org., 22 den	Milan trame, 32 den	62, threefold	60, threefold	Gauze.
Jacquard:					
Dress stuff	China org., 48 den	Milan trame, 34 den	144, single	136, threefold	Taffeta.
Dress stuff	Milan org., 24 den	China trame, 52 den.; cotton yarn, 60–30 fill.	248, single	115, twofold	Satin.
Cravat stuff	Milan org., 22 den	China trame, 48 den.; cotton yarn, 120–60.	310, single	100, twofold	Do.
Waistcoat stuff	Milan org., 22 den	Milan trame, 30 den	403, single	100, twofold	Gros-grain.

J. S. POTTER,
United States Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Crefeld, October 27, 1882.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES OF SILESIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL DITHMAR, OF BRESLAU.

During the twelve months ending to-day, the amount of the declared exports from this consular district to the United States has not varied materially from that of the previous year, linen and half linen goods still maintaining their precedence on the export list, followed in amount and value by leather gloves. Invoices of spelter to the amount of $84,158.80 have also been presented for verification, but in the last quarter no direct shipments from here seem to have been made. Of sheet zinc the exports to the United States have more than trebled; lambskins and potato starch have been added to the articles of export, while the shipments of glove-leather have largely increased one glove-making firm here, having a branch house in New York, finding it more profitable to ship the leather and manufacture the gloves in the United States.

THE LINEN INDUSTRY.

Of the linen and half linen goods shipped from this district, nearly one-half is the work of hand looms. The town of Soran (in Lower Lusatia), with about twenty so-called "manufacturers" of linen goods—of whom ten are regular exporters to the United States—contains only two factories with power looms, two others with hand looms, while the bulk of the fabrics is the product of "house-weaving," the "manufacturers" furnishing the raw material and giving the orders for the description of goods wanted. All these exporting "manufacturers," as well as several located in other parts of the district, stated in the spring that their orders, chiefly from the United States, were sufficient to keep their hands employed for nearly the remainder of the year, and that, although they would realize only 3 to 6 per cent. on their contracts, yet they had every reason to be satisfied with them. A demand of the weavers for higher wages, made later in the spring, was met with the assurance that a compliance with the demand at present would be ruinous to the employers, but that the wages question should be considered before making further contracts. These weavers earn from 30 to 50 cents per day. During the year 1881, 4,031,000 cwt. of linen and half-linen fabrics were manufactured in Soran and neighboring villages. The number of hand looms in operation in 1879 was 4,356; at the beginning of the present year, 4,694, the increase being mainly in looms for making handkerchiefs and damask and jacquard goods. The number of power looms in 1879 was 252, and has not increased.

The "circles" of Schweidnitz, Waldenburg, and Reichenbach, within the administrative district of Breslau, have a weaving population of 11,752, who, in the matter of earnings, are not so well situated as the weavers of Soran. The number of power looms in operation in this region is 2,794, and the number of hand-loom weavers working on their own account, 6,595. The greater part of these power looms are engaged in producing colored cotton fabrics, some of which, as also some linens, are sent to the United States, but by far the largest amount find their market in Silesia and in South Germany.

PORCELAIN AND GLASS WARE.

The Silesian potteries, notwithstanding that the high duties in Russia have substantially closed that country to their wares, have been kept busy during the last eighteen months, partly by the home demand, partly by large orders from Australia, India, and the United States.

Especially in the last six months the export to the United States from the two principal Silesian factories of fine porcelain has been brisk. A circular was issued in the spring of this year, signed by eight Silesian porcelain manufacturers, announcing an advance of 5 per cent. in the prices of their wares. Probably this advance was not strictly adhered to, as the manufacturers in some other parts of Germany failed to adopt the scale. One of the two exporters to the United States reports that his establishment last year turned out, 2,110,790 kilograms of porcelain ware, of the value of $218,530, besides tiles, bricks, and other manufactures of clay of the value of $8,840. The following raw material was used:

	Kilograms.
Porcelain clay from Saxony	1,646,000
Spar from Norway and Sweden	450,000
Coarse sand from Saxony	310,000
Silesian clay	11,450,000
Coal consumed	19,000,000

Gold and colors cost $22,854; wood for fuel, boxing, and other purposes, cost $12,802.

The factories of decorative glassware report a poor business for the close of last year and the beginning of this, the demand from England, formerly very large, having fallen off nearly entirely. During the last few months, however, the principal fine glass factory in the district has made considerable shipments to the United States.

ZINC.

In spelter and sheet zinc the demand from England and the United States was favorable to an advance in prices, and an agreement to fix prices for sheet zinc was arrived at by the manufacturers and maintained. The company which ships sheet zinc to the United States produced last year 484,062 cwt., against 338,715 cwt. in 1880—the value of last year's production reaching $2,133,521.

The twenty-four zinc smelting works in Upper Silesia are at present producing about 1,250 tons of spelter per week (nearly one-third of the entire production of Europe), of the value of $98,581. The four zinc rolling mills turn out from 320 to 370 tons of sheet zinc per week, valued at $28,560 to $33,320. This sheet zinc is shipped hence to nearly all parts of the world, Russia alone taking much less now than formerly, owing to the establishment, by an enterprising citizen of Breslau, of zinc rolling mills just across the Silesian border, thus avoiding the payment of the high duties imposed by Russia on the importation of sheet zinc.

BUSINESS REVIVAL IN UPPER SILESIA.

An increased activity in the Upper Silesian manufacturing districts during the last three months gives reason to hope that the cry for relief, so frequently heard heretofore from that quarter, will, for some time at least, cease. The profits of the various industrial undertakings are reported as satisfactory; the workman finds steadier employment, and in many cases at better wages than he formerly received; the number of iron furnaces has increased, and the leather and paper industries are yielding fair returns. Many heretofore idle hands are now profitably employed at basket-making. Two infant industries deserve brief mention here, namely, the manufacture of brass goods, and the preparation of phosphor-bronze. Both these industries are already participating in the export trade.

BEET-ROOT SUGAR.

The number of sugar factories in operation in Silesia in 1881 was: in January, 47; February, 29; March, 7; September, 37; and in the last three months of the year, 50. 8,632,263 kilograms of beets were used by the factories for the production of sugar. The amount of sugar exported from the province during the year was 354,536 kilograms refined, and 232,155 kilograms raw. There were also exported 34,899 kilograms of molasses and syrup.

TALLOW AND LARD.

Tallow, owing to the large quantities of the domestic product used in the manufacture of margarine butter, and the higher prices prevailing in the United States last year, advanced from the usual rate of $9.05 to $9.28 per cwt., to $10.47 to $10.83 per cwt., at which points it remained till the beginning of the present year. American lard having likewise become dearer, the poorer classes were obliged to have recourse to the cheaper home-made tallow for cooking purposes.

DISTILLERIES AND BREWERIES.

Nine hundred and forty-nine distilleries were in operation in Silesia during the last year, yielding a revenue to the State from taxes of $1,624,047. These distilleries produce for the most part potato whisky and alcohol, for which there is an active foreign as well as home demand. The material used in distilling was as follows:

	Kilograms.
Potatoes	277,744,518
Grain	86,015,081
Molasses	13,399,518
Maize	9,427,269
Sugar beets	30,000
Wine lees	41,025

The number of breweries in operation was 971 against 977 in the previous year, using for the production of 1,911,211 hectoliters of beer, 31,643,516 kilograms of grain, and 45,990 kilograms of malt surrogates. The amount of revenue accruing to the State from the breweries was $335,276. A complaint comes from several country districts that the consumption of beer is falling off, while that of ardent spirits is increasing.

CROPS OF GERMANY.

The cereal and potato crops of the last two years in the German Empire are officially given as follows:

Description.	1880.	1881.
	Tons.	*Tons.*
Wheat	2,345,278	2,059,139
Rye	4,952,525	5,448,404
Barley	2,145,617	2,076,160
Oats	4,228,128	3,759,789
Potatoes	19,466,242	25,491,022

The amounts for the present year have not yet been ascertained. Owing to the severe and continuous storms during the harvest season, a great part of the wheat was gathered in this province in a badly damaged condition, much of it having sprouted on the stalk. Rye was

mostly harvested in a fair condition, and may be considered a good average crop. Barley and oats suffered in like manner as wheat, and very little of the barley grown in Silesia will be fit for brewing purposes. Potatoes also suffered greatly; the yield will be less than half a crop, and of poor quality. It is thought that the deficiency in the potato yield will necessitate a large importation of maize. But for the untoward weather in the latter half of July and the first half of August, the food crops would undoubtedly have been the largest gathered for many years.

At the beginning of July it was estimated that the wheat crop in some parts of the province would reach 125 per cent., and would nowhere fall below 90. Rye was estimated as high as 150. Fruit is also not abundant, and America will probably again be looked to for a supply of apples.

GERMANY'S IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The following table shows the amount of cereals imported into and exported from Germany during the last two years ending June 30:

Cereals.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1881-'82.	1880-'81.	1881'-82.	1880-'81.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
Wheat	452, 419	455, 388	49, 534	46, 595
Rye	647, 821	714, 798	12, 689	8, 311
Oats	346, 099	207, 671	21, 000	37, 752
Barley	270, 004	309, 103	134, 797	96, 751
Maize	237, 045	479, 391	2, 117	613

Of potatoes larger quantities were exported in 1881 than in 1880, and the export of spirits exceeded that of 1880 by 18,000 cwt.

According to the preliminary estimates of the "commercial statistics" for 1881, the imports exceeded the exports in the following articles:

Articles.	Imports.	Exports.
Grain	$91, 844, 600	$23, 252, 600
Groceries, colonial produce	96, 725, 200	70, 281, 400
Cotton and cotton fabrics	59, 500, 000	41, 055, 000
Oils and fats	21, 678, 000	4, 230, 400
Petroleum	16, 250, 800	47, 600
Hides and skins	29, 245, 400	18, 635, 400
Wool and woolen fabrics	84, 680, 400	74, 589, 200
Wood and wooden-ware	24, 656, 800	15, 232, 000
Flax and hemp	18, 421, 200	11, 590, 600
Drugs and dye-stuffs	36, 295, 000	50, 392, 600
Total	479, 298, 200	309, 306, 800

While in the following the imports exceeded the exports;

Articles.	Imports.	Exports.
Iron and iron wares	$8, 092, 000	$52, 145, 800
Silk and silk goods	32, 462, 800	64, 950, 600
Leather and leather goods	7, 782, 600	29, 845, 200
Clothing and underwear	785, 400	19, 920, 600
Instruments, machines	5, 093, 300	21, 182, 000
Paper and paper ware	1, 142, 400	10, 543, 400
Coal	5, 902, 400	12, 376, 800
Zinc and zinc ware	309, 400	6, 354, 600
Total	62, 570, 200	217, 218, 200

It will be seen that in the foregoing enumeration several important articles of import and export are omitted; among the latter, linen and half-linen fabrics. The list, when revised and corrected, will probably show an increase of imports over exports of nearly $32,000,000.

THE COAL AND METAL INDUSTRIES OF SILESIA.

From the official "statistics of the mining and smelting works in Upper Silesia for 1881," I gather the following facts concerning the coal and metal industries of that district:

The quantity of coal mined in 1877 was 8,112,233 tons; in 1881, 10,368,357 tons. The average price per ton at the mines was, in 1877, $1.11; in 1881, only 86 cents. The number of workmen employed in 1878 was 30,111; in 1881, 33,598. The total wages paid in 1878 was $3,260,600; in 1881, $4,736,200, or an average per head in 1878 of about $108.26, and nearly $141 in 1881. The proportion of the wages to the entire value of the coal mined was, in 1878, 42.64 per cent., in 1881, 53.40 per cent. The reduction in the price of coal in 1881 was so great that, notwithstanding an increase in production of 357,636 tons, the total value was $162,492 less than in 1880. (In the latter year 900,000 tons of Silesian coal were exported to Austria.)

Of iron ore there was mined, in 1881, 2,155,599 tons, against 1,623,139 tons in 1880.

In the zinc and lead mines there has also been an increase of production over the previous year, but the money value of the product was more than one-fourth less than in 1876. The proportion of the wages to the value of the product was, in 1881, 52.30 per cent.

The coke pig iron produced in 1881 amounted to 323,821 tons, an increase over the preceding year, and of charcoal pig iron 2,436 tons were produced, against 1,244 tons in 1880. At the close of the year, however, the stock of the latter remaining on hand amounted to 1,185 tons, showing that the demand had not kept pace with the production.

For the manufacture of steel, the year 1881 was a favorable one. Not only was the production increased from 22,339 to 35,614 tons, but the value of the product was doubled.

The following tables give the total production of the mines and furnaces of Upper Silesia, the value of the same, the number of workmen employed, and the wages they received in 1881:

TOTAL PRODUCTION.

	Tons.
Coal and ore mines	11,580,566
Iron and steel works	677,616
Zinc, lead, and silver works	108,919

TOTAL VALUE.

Coal and ore mines	$11,188,574
Iron and steel works	15,233,949
Zinc, lead, and silver works	8,464,946

NUMBER OF WORKMEN.

Coal and ore mines	46,761
Iron and steel works	15,931
Zinc, lead, and silver works	6,188

AVERAGE WAGES PER WORKMAN PER ANNUM.

Coal and ore mines	$121 20
Iron and steel works	136 99
Zinc, lead, and silver works	142 12

The following table, giving the amount and value of all the products of the mines and smelting works in the district of the supervisor of mines in Breslau for the year 1881, is printed in the latest annual report of the chamber of commerce of this city:

		Amount.	Value.
Charcoal pig iron	tons	1,525	$43,107
Stone coal and coke pig iron	do	328,960	4,384,673
Mixed fuel pig iron	do	865	12,376
Zinc (spelter)	do	67,013	4,768,700
Block lead	do	14,109	933,912
Litharge	do	1,675	111,280
Copper ore	do	225	26,843
Silver (pure metal)	kilograms	9,588	351,202
Nickel, and substance containing nickel	tons	11,576	13,775
Cadmium	do	3,336	6,480
Arsenicals	do	112	8,323
Sulphur	do	368	8,770
Sulphuric acid	do	39,841	629,552
Sulphate of iron	do	1,558	19,619
Mixed sulphates	do	75	2,856
Coloring earths	do	100	1,904
Total			11,324,372

RIVER COMMERCE OF BRESLAU.

The following table shows the amount and description of goods which arrived at Breslau by the river Oder during the year 1881:

Articles.	Downstream.	Upstream.
	Cwt.	*Cwt.*
Coal	275,110	12
Chemicals, &c	13,625	44,410
Petroleum		186,040
Rosin, pitch, tar	1,200	52,050
Fertilizers	26,614	3,400
Iron of all descriptions	178,363	70,987
Spelter, sheet zinc, zinc white	375,406	
Lead, &c	53,450	
Grain, pulse, seeds	270,505	15,473
Oil	65,377	12,650
Oil-cake	28,900	6,460
Rice		15,050
Mill products	175,992	1,275
Malt	48,420	
Whisky, alcohol	108,892	
Wine		5,030
Sugar	147,092	15,550
Roofing paper	1,300	16,219
Stone, bricks, cement	148,400	147,601
Lumber, staves	51,022	58,242
Miscellaneous	192,179	632,268
Total	2,160,847	1,282,617

HENRY DITHMAR,
Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE,
Breslau, September 30, 1882.

TRADE AND INDUSTRIES OF WURTEMBERG.

REPORT BY CONSUL CATLIN, OF STUTTGART.

LACK OF STATISTICS IN GERMANY.

Even the thoroughness of detail, and the accuracy characterizing all official and statistical reports made in this country scarcely compensate for the tardiness with which such reports are given to the public. They are generally so long delayed in publication that by the time they appear in print for the general reader they have ceased to be a topic of interest, and can only be filed away as records and standards of reference. My attention has been particularly called to this fact during the three years in which I have been called upon to make annual commercial reports for this district, in consequence of my endeavors to obtain late statistical information in regard to crops, manufactures, census, revenues, &c., extending up to, or nearly up to the date of preparation of the report. Such endeavors are practically futile. Here and there, it is true, detached statements may by chance be obtained, but they are fragmentary and only serve to render the more conspicuous the greater materials that are lacking. This will, I am aware, seem incomprehensible to the general reader in a country like the United States, where a three hours' speech delivered in New York is transmitted by telegraph and in type at Cincinnati two hours after its completion, or where the result of a general Presidential election appears in full in the morrow's morning papers in the principal cities of the Union. Yet it is nevertheless a fact, and one which necessarily places a consular commercial report from this section somewhat in the light of a treatise on the commerce of the past.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

So far as the business, however, of this consulate goes, I am enabled to give herewith a statistical table showing the exports from Wurtemberg (including Pforzheim in Baden) to the United States during the year ending on the 30th ultimo (September), viz:

Articles.	Total year ending September 30, 1882.	Total previous year.
Corsets	$432,712 70	$357,929 29
Quinine and other drugs	72,158 30	138,059 25
Colors	51,798 48	54,365 65
Leather	15,268 70	23,431 72
Jewelry	23,917 43	21,018 27
Chicory	35,501 52	20,226 35
Cotton goods	34,187 98	10,016 56
Musical instruments	12,508 41	8,239 92
Stoneware	18,464 68	9,524 42
Books and illustrated periodicals	13,394 61	8,754 28
Woolen goods	5,833 54	1,730 79
Linen goods	5,429 12	1,876 27
Wines and liquors	4,095 78	2,350 65
Watchmen's detectors	5,844 29	6,500 24
Miscellaneous	42,048 97	183,067 37
Total	773,164 51	847,091 03

From the foregoing it will be noted that there has been a large increase in the shipment of corsets, chicory, cotton, woolen, and linen goods, musical instruments, stoneware, books, and periodicals, and a still greater falling off in quinine, drug-stuffs, and leather.

THE CORSET TRADE.

Manufacturers report for the past year a slight increase in the demand, with no change in the relative quantities of the different classes of goods shipped, or in the rate of wages paid the working people. It should be noted, however, that the petition addressed by the corset manufacturers to the German government, asking for a reduction in the entry duty on whalebone, has been refused.

During the year the extensive corset factory of Messrs. Gutmann & Co., at the neighboring city of Cannstatt, was totally destroyed by fire, temporarily throwing out of employment many hundreds of operatives, only temporarily, however, for the firm with creditable energy immediately replaced the burned factory by a larger and more substantial one, which is now in full operation.

THE QUININE TRADE.

The principal shippers of quinine from this consular district are the firm of Boehringer & Geyer, who also have a large establishment at Mannheim (in another consular district), from which they also ship.

Consequently the amount shipped through either one of the two consulates can be taken as no fair criterion of their aggregate shipments.

The Stuttgart Chamber of Commerce report for last year states that in the early part of the year a fall in the prices of the raw material (owing, no doubt, to large stocks on hand previously purchased at higher prices) made the business a very poor one, but that it afterwards rallied.

A certain London operator, in connection with some Paris bankers, bought up at any price all the raw material in store and in the market, amounting to 50,000 cases—double the quantity on hand in 1880—and prices immediately rose 50 per cent.; and as these speculators were backed by heavy capital, they managed to "bull" the market and keep up the high price for some time, especially as they had previously managed in some way or another to put a check upon new importations at the same time. This state of things has rendered the quinine manufacturers' position a precarious one, and may help to account for the fact that during the past quarter not a single shipment of quinine has been declared from this consular district.

COLORS.

Of the colors manufactured and shipped by the Badische Aniline and Soda Fabrik, which has one of its principal establishments in Stuttgart, it may be said that the volume of last year's business was both large and profitable, exceeding by 11 per cent. that of the preceding year, and amounting to a profit of 2,000,000 marks carried to the reserve fund, outside of dividends declared.

Artificial indigo, the manufacture of which had been previously attempted, has not as yet proved completely successful, being in its first stages, nor can it as yet be considered as giving promise of proving a useful substitute for the genuine article. Powdered alizarine blue is, however, beginning to be quite generally manufactured as a substitute for indigo, as it can be easily combined.

The introduction of artificial pigments into commerce proves difficult, the genuine articles still commanding a decided preference in the market. Imitation lac, fully as brilliant as real madder, is, however, manufactured successfully, and when used in printing gives fully as good results as the real carmine lacs.

THE LEATHER TRADE.

The falling off in leather shipments during the past year is partly to be attributed to the heavy duty on bark imposed by the new German tariff. Two-thirds of the bark used in Wurtemberg is imported, and the effect of the high tariff upon leather manufacture must consequently be apparent. The prices of raw hides have remained high, however, owing to the presence of buyers from America and France. The manufacture and export of calf-skins has proved more profitable than during the previous year, which may be ascribed to the fact that German calf-skins are regarded with even higher favor than French in the foreign markets. The export of harness and saddle leather, as well as leather belting, shows also a slight increase over the previous year.

From Tuttlingen, a great center for the manufacture of boots and shoes, employing over 2,000 workmen, the report comes that shipments during the past year to foreign lands have been unusually large, though evidently not so to the United States. A general complaint is made by shoe and glove manufacturers that traveling merchants, principally in the case of gloves, from the Tyrol, inundate the country with inferior goods, made to look well and to sell, but not calculated to wear for any length of time.

COTTON, LINEN, AND WOOLEN GOODS.

In my special report of June 8, 1881,* on the textile industries of Wurtemberg, I dwelt so fully upon this subject and all the details pertaining to it that I find no new feature to add here, unless it be to mention the fact that a considerable increase in shipments of such goods hence to the United States is noticeable since it became generally known that such a report had been sent to Washington in the interest of our American manufacturers.

I can only explain this as the result of the extreme sensitiveness of a market where the competition is so keen, and of a desire on the part of the enterprising manufacturers here to see that their best work is put forward and pushed in the American centers of trade.

THE BOOK TRADE.

Complaint is made by publishers of a dullness in exporting to the United States on account of the heavy entry duty, and more still owing to the fact that no copyright law exists between the two countries. Still the publishing houses here are not by any means idle, as may be inferred from the statement that during the year there were shipped away 2,800,610 kilograms of literature, of which 2,227,310 kilograms went to Leipsic, and the balance to Vienna, Switzerland, and Alsace-Lorraine.

GRAIN.

A statement of the grain crop of 1881, as published early during the present year, shows a general decrease of three or four per cent. from the previous year's amounts. There was, however, a great increase in the potato crop, the average yield per hectare being 215 centners, against 131 of the previous year.

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*See No. 23, "Consular Reports," page 216, "Cotton and Woolen Industries of Würtemberg."

THE HOP CROP.

The weather last year was exceedingly unfavorable to the hop owners, and the harvest was inferior to its predecessor, both in quantity and quality. At the Stuttgart annual hop market good prices were obtained at first, until a fall in the market at Nuremberg produced a similar result here.

The Stuttgart brewers for some reason or other held aloof from the market and did not purchase, and most of the hops were sold to agents from Mayence, Mannheim, and other outside places. Prices ruled from 70 to 145 marks, and later from 42 to 100 marks the centner.

THE FRUIT CROP.

In many sections the fruit crop almost entirely failed, while in others there was an unusual yield. For instance, in and around Schoendorf there were gathered 10,000 centners of cherries, which were sold to parties from Bavaria, Switzerland, and other points for 158,000 marks, and in the Waiblingen district there were gathered 93,000 centners of apples and pears, netting 372,000 marks.

THE VINEYARDS.

The total wine crop of 1881 was 398,975 hectoliters, an average product of 21.66 hectoliters to the planted hectare.

The average selling price per hectoliter was 35.85 marks, and the amount sold in the market, *i. e.*, 286,630 hectoliters, brought 10,274,365 marks. The total product was four times as great as that of 1880, which had been, however, an exceptionally bad year. The clause in the new tariff imposing a heavy duty on imported fresh grapes (from France, Hungary, or Italy they mostly come) has proved of immense advantage to Wurtemberg wine-growers. From present indications the crop of the present year will, owing to the protracted season of rain, prove almost a total failure.

BREWERIES AND BEER.

There were in operation last year in the kingdom 7,623 breweries, or 187 less than during the previous year, and taxes were paid on 1,602,336 centners of malt and other materials used in the brewing of beer, among which may be mentioned rice, corn, sugar, sirup, and potatoes. Stuttgart alone paid 591,000 marks and upwards during the year for taxes on malt materials. For duty on beer imported into Wurtemberg there were collected 9,434.25 marks, and there was refunded to brewers on beer exported the sum of 107,799.51 marks. Owing to the inferior quality of the year's wine crop, the consumption of beer during the year correspondingly increased.

RAILROAD TRAFFIC.

The Wurtemberg railway system (1,535 kilometers in length) employs 8,126 persons (of whom 4,014 are laborers), 782 passenger-coaches (accommodating 35.908 passengers), 5,164 freight-cars, and 331 locomotives, of which all but six are of Wurtemberg construction.

During the previous year there were carried 10,076,239 way and 518,247 through passengers, or 10,594,486 in all. Of these 0.68 per cent. were first-class, 13.39 per cent. second-class, 84.93 third-class, and 1 per cent. military. Of freight there were transported 2,932,243 tons, of which 1,198,820 tons were way freight, 49,198 tons mail matter, and the

remainder to or from outside points. The total receipts and expenditure will be found elsewhere.

POSTAL STATISTICS.

Six new post-offices have been opened during the past year, making a total of 530 in all. There are 2,992 letter-boxes, and 4,375 employés. There were handled 30,730,032 letters (of which 22,517,154 were letters received), 7,730,406 postal-cards (5,645,268 received), 8,565,516 inclosures of printed matter, and 472,248 packages of samples. The average number of pieces handled was 18.901 per capita of the total population. In addition to these there were sent or delivered 28,765,915 newspapers, or 14.592 to every inhabitant. There were received from foreign countries 1,681,821 money orders, valued at 110,086,702 marks, and there were sent 1,501,889 money orders, amounting to 98,114,490 marks.

From the United States there were received of the above 5,901 money orders, aggregating in value 354,760 marks, and there were sent thither 1,217 orders, valued at 112,832 marks.

TELEGRAPHIC BUSINESS.

There are 2,749 kilometers of telegraph lines in Wurtemberg, with 391 offices, 7,265 kilometers of wire, and 697 apparatus.

During the year there were 1,505,994 messages sent, received, or transmitted, an increase of 19,930 over the number of the preceding year. The introduction of the telephone in Stuttgart has proved very popular in the business world, although the prices charged for service as yet prevent its being used as generally as it already is in most of the larger cities in America.

STEAMBOAT TRAFFIC ON LAKE CONSTANCE.

The Wurtemberg Government line of steamers on the Lake of Constance owns eight passenger boats, four iron freight boats, and a half interest in one large vessel built for the transportation of an entire train, similar to the vessels formerly in use at Havre de Grace, Md., and New London, Conn. There were carried 153,403 passengers (607 more than in previous year), 58,236,709 kilograms of general freight, and 8,524,990 kilograms of grain.

NECKAR NAVIGATION STATISTICS.

There were 344,340 centners of freight received by boat at Heilbronn last year, and from the same point there were shipped 2,628,000 kilograms, of which 236,200 went down the Rhine to Holland and beyond. Coffee, linseed, petroleum, and resin were the principal articles received, and chicory the principal article shipped from and to Holland or beyond. The number of trips made between Mannheim and Heilbronn was 325 (315 in 1880), the river being navigable even at its lowest stage, which was 64 centimeters. The entry duties collected at Heilbronn during the year 1881–'82 amounted to 2,709,101 marks.

NAVIGATION OF THE UPPER DANUBE.

The Danube becomes navigable from Ulm down at certain seasons of the year, and great efforts have been made to turn this watery highway to as much account as possible at least for the transportation of freight. Passenger traffic begins only at Passau, but the freight business from

Ulm, the point at which the main railway line of continental travel from Vienna to Paris crosses the Danube, is reported as having been carried on with great success during last year, the navigable season extending from the 19th of March to the end of October. A total of 1,958,985 kilograms was transported, being an excess of 343,913 kilograms over the amount of the previous year. Seven boat-loads were dispatched to Vienna, seven more to Buda-Pest, and eight lighters to Regensburg. The depth of water was on the whole unfavorable, the river reaching its highest stand at the beginning of September, but falling again almost immediately.

A survey of the bed of the river between Ulm and Passau has demonstrated the feasibility of laying a submarine chain cable for steamboat service similar to that in use on the Neckar between Heilbronn, Heidelberg, and Mannheim, or on the Rhine and the Elbe.

From Passau on to Vienna and thence to Pressburg, cables are already laid or about being laid, the Austrian Government having appropriated 39,000,000 florins (about sixteen and a half million dollars) for the improvement of the river in its own territory. At Ulm a committee, composed jointly of Wurtemberg and Bavarian manufacturers and capitalists, have organized and petitioned the governments at Stuttgart and Munich respectively to grant them a charter for navigating the Danube by this plan as far down as Passau on the Austrian frontier, thus making the water line of communication continuous from Ulm to the Black Sea. The importance of this change in lowering freights may be inferred from the fact that at present rates the cost of transporting a hundred kilograms from Ulm to Constantinople direct, via Vienna, is 14.27 marks, while the same goods can be shipped from Ulm to Constantinople, via Mannheim, Rotterdam, London, and the Mediterranean, for only 5.18 marks. Most goods in fact are shipped by the latter route. Nearly two and a half million centners (50 kilograms) of freight annually reach or pass through Ulm from the east. It is not too much to prophesy that the completion of this proposed line of freight service between Ulm and Passau will result in a change in the commercial movement in Central Europe fully as great as that recently operated by the St. Gothard Tunnel.

THE "ROUGH ALPS" WATER WORKS.

Referring to my special report on this subject, dated June 15, 1881, I have to state that during the past year the "Fils" group, the last of the nine great groups composing the system for furnishing fresh water in the elevated plateaux of the Swabish Alps, has been completed and put in operation, supplying 7,000 inhabitants with water and costing one and a quarter million marks. This great system is now complete, and daily furnishes pure water at an average daily consumption of 50 to 76 liters per capita to a total population of about 40,000 people.

THE ART AND INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION OF 1881.

As I stated in a previous report, the last year's national exhibition of Wurtemberg arts and industries proved in every way successful, and especially so in a financial point of view, leaving a surplus of 304,000 marks on hand after all expenses had been paid and the books closed.

The total number of visitors was 948,000, the largest attendance on any one day being on Sunday, August 14, when 23,218 persons were

e in all 1,700 exhibitors, among whom were awarded 44

honorary diplomas, 56 gold, 265 silver, and 409 bronze medals, and 507 honorable mentions. Notwithstanding the brilliant display, however, and the satisfactory nature of the financial outcome of the affair, there is some question whether, after all, it has not, as in the case of most expositions, been followed this year by a reaction and dullness which have gone far to counterbalance the good results otherwise to have been looked for.

EMIGRATION.

According to the Wurtemberg Staats Anzeiger 12,876 emigrants were registered in 1881 at the offices of the various emigration agencies in the kingdom. Of these 4,811 sailed from Bremen, 1,973 from Hamburg, 3,366 from Antwerp, 1,758 from Rotterdam, and 968 from Amsterdam.

This does not, however, include the total number of those who emigrated during the year, for there were many others who for one reason or another made their arrangements for sailing only after their arrival at the various sea-ports, while others again started with tickets sent out by relatives and friends who had preceded them to America.

The number of such departures can only, of course, be estimated approximately, but it is probably sufficient to swell the total emigration from Wurtemberg in 1881 to 15,000 persons. The heavy rains of the past season have almost, if not entirely, ruined this year's wine crop, and will consequently engender great destitution in the rural districts, a fact which will no doubt conduce to a largely increased emigration during the coming year.

I append herewith a statement of the revenues and expenditures of the kingdom for the year 1881–'82, viz:

REVENUES AND EXPENDITURE OF THE KINGDOM.

Estimated budget for the year 1881–'82.

I.—EXPENDITURES.

No.	Description of expenditures.		Amount.
			Marks.
1	Civil list of His Majesty the King		1,830,516.74
2	Appanages and dowers		313,420.24
3	National debt of the kingdom:		
	Interest	17,145,956.77	
	Sinking fund	2,190,782.16	
	Percentages on the payment of coupes	19,500.00	
			19,356,238.93
4	Rents		464,444.83
5	Salaries		60,670.84
6	General pension fund—army and civil administration		1,756,900.00
7	Special pensions		10,237.00
8	Subsidies to officials, corporations, and persons in distress, &c		339,000.00
9	Privy council		60,175.00
10	Court of administration		29,800.00
11	Judiciary of the kingdom		4,088,600.58
12	Foreign office		184,201.00
13	Department of the Interior		4,880,555.03
14	School and church departments		8,110,465.21
15	Treasury Department		3,074,209.00
16	Royal Diet		352,698.43
17	Silent capital		105,000.00
18	Contribution to the German Empire		6,960,595.00
19	Postage of the different departments, in consequence of abolition of franking privilege for officials		290,000.00
	Total		52,267,817.83

II.—REVENUES.

1	Crown land:		
	a. Cameral department	749,212.00	
	b. Forest	4,804,974.75	
	c. Mines and founderies	150,000.00	
	d. Salt works	650,000.00	
	e. Bleaching and dressing works at Wussenau	1,900.00	
			6,356,086.75
2	Traffic:		
	a. Railways	12,752,000.00	
	b. Postal telegraph service	1,300,000.00	
	c. Steamboat traffic on the Lake of Constance	7,100.00	
			14,059,100.00
3	Mint and coinage		2,800.00
4	Various miscellaneous revenues		965,979.66
5	Direct taxes on:		
	a. Real estate, houses, and trade	8,723,315.00	
	b. Peddling	19,000.00	
	c. Appanages, incomes, and salaries	4,194,900.00	
			12,937,215.00
6	Indirect taxes:		
	a. Excise	1,349,700.00	
	b. Dogs	207,700.00	
	c. Public houses	9,430,236.15	
	d. Perquisites	2,480,000.00	
			13,467,636.15
7	Allotment to Wurtemberg from custom-house duties and taxes on tobacco		2,800,000.00
8	Additional portion of loan raised to cover installments of railway debt		1,565,354.16
	Total		52,154,171.72

Deficiency, 113,646.11; offset by a surplus of 114,078.07 marks for next year's estimate.

a.—RAILWAYS, 1881–'82.

	Marks.
Receipts from passengers and baggage	9,620,800.00
Receipts from freight	15,845,800.00
Receipts from various other sources	1,993,700.00
Total	27,460,300.00
Running expenses	14,708,300.00
Surplus	12,752,000.00

b.—POSTAL AND TELEGRAPH SERVICE, 1881–'82.

Receipts from postage	4,991,000.00
Receipts from telegrams	448,000.00
Receipts from passengers	400,000.00
Receipts from newspapers	280,000.00
Receipts from various other sources	415,000.00
Total	6,534,000.00
Expenditure	5,234,000.00
Surplus	1,300,000.00

c.—STEAMBOAT TRAFFIC ON THE LAKE OF CONSTANCE, 1881–'82.

Receipts from passengers and baggage	124,000.00
Receipts from freight	126,000.00
Receipts from carrying the mail	8,400.00
Receipts from various other sources	2,314.00
Total	260,714.00
Expenditure	232,281.50
Surplus (of which 7,100 marks are for the government, and 21,332.50 for marks for the sinking fund)	28,432.50

d.—MINT, 1881–'82.

Receipts	20,000.00
Expenditure	17,200.00
Surplus	2,800.00

GEORGE L. CATLIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Stuttgart, October 14, 1882.

RUSSIA'S FOREIGN COMMERCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL STANTON.

Herewith I have the honor to transmit a statement which has just appeared of the foreign trade of the Russian Empire for the first eight months of the present year.

EDGAR STANTON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
St. Petersburg, October 9, 1882.

Statement of Russia's imports and exports during the first eight months of 1882 *(old style) as compared with the same period of the preceding year.*

IMPORTS.

Articles.		1881.	1882.
I.—Alimentary articles.			
Salt	poods	7,670,767	6,682,711
Herrings	do	3,264,233	3,466,842
Other fish	do	800,842	104,180
Tea	do	381,071	577,523
Coffee	do	256,269	425,279
Raw sugar	do	985	30,635
Refined sugar	do	2	24
Leaf tobacco	do	40,876	62,504
Cut tobacco and cigars	do	1,474	1,913
Wine: In casks	do	404,501	555,044
In bottles	bottles	146,925	198,820
Sparkling wines	do	199,289	358,647
II.—Raw materials and half-manufactured articles.			
Coal	poods	45,114,233	77,184,707
Tallow	do	247,977	388,895
Uncurried leather	do	169,900	256,598
Curried leather	do	62,515	85,201
Raw cotton	do	5,417,056	4,185,216
Spun cotton	do	221,130	304,197
Raw wool, undyed	do	190,797	266,734
Unspun wool, dyed	do	66,003	138,142
Shoddy	do	3,621	7,246
Spun wool	do	163,468	237,859
Silk	do	15,980	15,099
Pig iron	do	8,601,199	7,945,844
Iron in bars molded and rolled	do	2,732,515	3,104,226
Boiler-plate iron	do	1,129,984	1,461,451
Scrap iron	do	440	1,615
Iron rails	do	33,414	32,690
Sheet iron	do	21,771	20,538
Steel, in bars	do	255,354	139,655
Steel plates and boiler metal	do	71,547	7,052
Scrap steel	do	104,294	54,416
Steel, in lumps	do	572,693	211,516
Copper and alloys	do	271,399	160,858
Brass	do	85,264	64,178
Lead	do	727,357	850,304
Block zinc	do	44,828	115,011
Leaf zinc, or sheets	do	26,240	7,931

Statement of Russia's imports and exports during the first eight months of 1882—Continued.

Articles.		1881.	1882.
II.—*Raw materials and half-manufactured articles*—Continued.			
Illuminating oils	poods	463,011	564,248
Vegetable oils	do	626,331	746,313
Indigo	do	43,222	40,695
Aniline colors and authracene	do	16,961	34,497
Soda	do	1,046,710	1,405,940
Nitric acid, chlorhydric acid, chlorate of potash, &c	do	326,239	379,615
Sulphuric acid and sulphate of carbon	do	50,079	66,535
III.—*Manufactured articles.*			
Iron and steel wire	poods	11,743	76,025
Copper and brass wire	do	19,702	20,503
Machines and parts thereof, agricultural excepted	do	690,306	1,214,615
Agricultural machines	do	593,491	814,067
Cotton tissues	do	49,625	55,495
Linen and batist tissues	roubles	903,924	1,536,213
Do	poods		629
Linen and jute sacks	do	507,133	64,869
Woolen manufactures	do	55,863	66,929
Silk manufactures	do	8,548	3,462
Clothing, woolen and linen	roubles	1,378,218	1,451,565
Do	poods		428
EXPORTS.			
I.—*Alimentary articles and cereals.*			
Wheat	tchetverts	2,892,154	8,848,445
Rye	do	1,911,714	3,851,711
Barley	do	646,193	2,244,760
Maize	do	1,154,702	1,533,788
Pease	do	69,432	533,151
Oats	do	3,731,124	6,442,289
Groats	do	144,675	192,305
Flour	do	118,456	200,924
Other cereals	do	205,559	302,532
Total cereals	do	10,874,019	24,109,895
Caviare	poods	56,789	71,820
Butter	do	66,748	68,586
Raw sugar	do	1,373	34
Refined sugar	do	49,135	9,887
Leaf and cut tobacco	do	21,588	71,865
Spirits of wine, brandy, &c	do	290,106	1,227,428
Do	*degrees	39,054,872	159,281,494
II.—*Raw materials and half-manufactured articles.*			
Linseed and hempseed	poods	893,076	1,654,487
Other oleaginous seeds	do	283,963	390,005
Oil cake	do	1,128,266	1,672,030
Flax	do	10,018,843	9,750,080
Flax tow	do	1,221,243	1,053,021
Spun flax	do	5,980	3,491
Hemp	do	3,269,393	2,700,176
Hemp tow	do	140,011	111,223
Spun hemp	do	158,823	123,613
Rags	do	594,409	584,147
Wood	do	20,323,411	25,431,919
Potash	do	44,396	17,696
Tallow	do	89,817	96,377
Uncurried leather	do	243,334	302,265
Dyed and curried leather	do	11,662	10,619
Bones	do	78,141	286,104
Raw wool	do	775,751	961,544
Bristles	do	95,586	101,186
Peltries	do	70,896	68,256
Iron	do	122,541	153,561
III.—*Animals.*			
Horned cattle	number	14,376	10,100
Sheep, lambs, &c	do	430,922	662,255
Horses	do	18,210	28,930
IV.—*Manufactured articles.*			
Rope and cordage	poods	211,401	200,057
Crash	arsheens	4,304,172	3,267,443

*So designated in the original.

STARCH-SUGAR PATENT.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT WAMER, OF DUSSELDORF, ON THE NEW METHOD FOR REFINING AND CRYSTALLIZING STARCH-SUGAR, DISCOVERED AND PATENTED BY DR. FRANK SOXHLET, OF MUNICH, GERMANY.

The improvement consists in the preparation of pure anhydrated starch-sugar (C 6, H 12, O 6), possessing a crystalline structure. The discoverer writes:

"Starch-sugar manufactured by the old process contains a large amount of water, corresponding to water of crystallization, and which is necessary for crystallization (viz, 9.09 per cent.); also, in every 100 parts 20 to 30 parts of uncrystallizable and unfermentable substances, of a gummy nature.

"The removal of these substances, which inclose the sugar particles in the form of sirup, and the preparation thereform of pure granulated starch-sugar, is the aim of my discovery. A solution of starch-sugar, prepared in the ordinary way by the action of hot dilute acids upon starch, is concentrated in a vacuum to the consistency of a thick paste. The sirup so obtained is heated to a temperature of 70° Celcius, and then intimately mixed with methylic alcohol in closed vessels. The amount of alcohol to be used depends upon the purity of the starch-sugar and the quality of the product wished to be obtained.

"If starch-sugar contains 20 to 30 per cent. of other substances that are not sugar, there should be used 70 to 80 parts of alcohol to every 100 parts of sirup, and allowed to crystallize in closed vessels at a temperature from 30° to 40° Celcius, which may be hastened by the addition of anhydrated starch-sugar.

"The granulated mass can be deprived of its water by means of centrifugal force or a press machine.

"Granulated porous starch-sugar, in compact and well-defined blocks, having the appearance of refined sugar, can be prepared by the following process:

"A clear and colorless solution of starch-sugar, on being freed from all foreign impurities, is concentrated in a vacuum to the above-mentioned consistency.

"The sirup must be as clear as water; should it show signs to remain slightly cloudy in crystallizing, which very often occurs when the process of evaporation progresses too slowly, or is interrupted in any way, it would not be suited for the following process, on account of the formation of water of crystallization. In this case 100 parts by weight of clear sirup is heated to a temperature of about 70° Celcius, and mixed with 10 to 25 parts by weight of boiling hot pure methylic alcohol, until the mixture is of an equally sirupy consistence. It is then placed, while hot, into tightly closed conically-shaped vessels, and allowed to cool gradually until it recedes to 30° to 35° Celcius, where it is kept until the crystallization is complete, which requires from two to three days, at the end of which time the remaining liquid is to be drawn off.

"If it is desired to obtain the crystals of sugar in a dense form, one proceeds, after removing any superfluous liquid, to saturate the porous mass once or twice with a mixture composed of 80 to 100 parts of methylic alcohol and 100 parts of concentrated sirup, and allow the crystallization to take place at ordinary temperature.

"When the required density is reached, the liquid part is removed and the crystals of sugar washed with methylic alcohol; 5 per cent. of the latter to the entire weight of the sugar mass should be sufficient. It is afterward freed entirely from methylic alcohol by distillation in a

vacuum pan, starting at a temperature of 30° Celcius, and gradually increasing it to from 50° to 60° Celcius, at which point the greater quantity of the alcohol is distilled.

"If the mass of sugar is kept at this temperature for several hours in an air vacuum, it would be impossible to detect, either by the smell or taste, the presence of the slightest traces of any alcohol.

"The drawn-off liquid residue is distilled either in an air vacuum or by the ordinary way, in order to regain a portion of the methylic alcohol used, so that by this last operation the loss amounts to only 2 to 2½ per cent."

WM. D. WAMER,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Dusseldorf, November 10, 1882.

TRADE OF VANCOUVER.

REPORT BY CONSUL FRANCIS, OF VICTORIA.

Summary of the navigation, commerce, and business of the province of British Columbia, for the quarter ending 30th September, 1882.

There were 77 arrivals in this port of American vessels from the United States, aggregate tonnage 62,808, with merchandise and railroad materials valued at $562,409.70, being largely in excess of any previous quarter. The imports were chiefly from the United States, Canada, and England. It is impossible to give details as to kind and quantity of merchandise until made up by the customs authorities, which have been promised, and will be given in the coming annual report.

Of the 77 arrivals, 72 were steamers, running regularly by tri-weekly, semi-monthly, and monthly trips; 1 ship, 1 bark, and 3 schooners. The departures were the same, taking from the port gold dust and bullion, furs, salmon, hides, oil, and other merchandise, valued at $356,177.18.

The entire exports of the province to American ports, as invoiced at the consulate, amounted to $602,145.78, nearly doubling that of any previous quarter; the leading items being gold dust and bullion, $224,451.98; coal (principally to San Francisco), $146,334; fur, seal-skins, and other furs, $168,973.78, and salmon in cases and barrels, $31,611.

During the quarter there were five arrivals at this port of foreign vessels, aggregate tonnage 3,152, bringing merchandise from England valued at $85,000, three of which were dispatched to foreign ports with full cargoes of salmon.

The unprecedented number of American and foreign vessels arriving in Royal Roads from the Atlantic and the Chinese seas, seeking freight or charter, with the exception of one, the City of Brooklyn, have succeeded and departed, accepting lumber and coal freights at greatly reduced rates. The great amount of tonnage seeking business in this part of the world is much in excess of demand, and has seriously affected ruling prices.

There have been no wrecks or disasters to the shipping on this part of the coast during the quarter.

The business of the province generally was never more prosperous. Its coal is in steady demand, and the mines are being worked up to their full capacity, and two new ones on the island are being opened. The

catch and put-up of salmon, though not as large as the previous season, having received a reputation, have met with ready sale and returns. Mills manufacturing lumber have been favored with more orders than they could fill. Fur sealing, an important and growing industry, has proven otherwise than predicted, and turned out moderately remunerative. The gold mines of the province, from which there is nothing authentic, it is thought will turn out comparatively with other seasons of the last four or five years. No new gold fields have been discovered, though several parties have been out prospecting in unexplored regions of the country.

Favorable reports continue coming down from the gold mines of Alaska, in the Tarkoo country, discovered last season, some claims paying as high as $20 the day to the hand. Prospectors having quartz mills in that locality are so sanguine of success, as to be arranging for the erection of ten and twenty-stamp mills the coming year. The company out prospecting the past summer on the head-waters of the Youcon, report having discovered gold diggings, but are reticent as to their extent and richness.

Labor has been in great demand throughout the province, mechanics getting $4 to $5 per day, and common laborers $2, $2.50, and $3; loggers in the forest, $100 to $125 per month and board. Chinamen working on the railroad, $1 to $1.50 per day, and as cooks and servants in families, from $20 to $40 per month, according to their experience in the business.

The cost of living in the province, particularly in this city, is said by those who have tested the matter, to be at least 25 per cent. higher than in any other section on the Pacific coast.

ALLEN FRANCIS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Victoria, V. I., October 9, 1882.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Victoria, British Columbia, to the United States, during the quarter ending September 30, 1882.

	Value.
Bears' feet	$95 00
Beef, fresh	465 34
Bottles, old	43 80
Butter	400 00
Coal, 46,108 tons, 30 cargoes	146,334 00
Dry goods and clothing	2,112 11
Emigrants' effects	175 00
Fur-seal skins and other furs	168,973 78
Hides, dry, green, and salted	10,472 59
Iron rails, spikes, and shears	3,150 00
Jewelry	263 10
Liquors, brandy and whisky	235 17
Lumber, rough	1,108 15
Labels	156 00
Miscellaneous goods	220 86
Oil	2,996 40
Old junk and copper	272 00
Rice	5,809 00
Railroad ties	1,321 50
Salmon, in cases and barrels	31,611 00
Salt	56 00
Soldering pots	1,125 00
Tea	199 00
Treasure, gold dust and bullion	224,451 98
Total	602 145 78

NOTES.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT.

The names of Messrs. Heinrich Otto & Sons, cotton thread manufacturers at Unterboihingen, on the Neckar, should have appeared in the list of "acknowledgments" (Consul Report No. 23), to whom the Department of State tendered thanks for courtesies extended to the consuls in the preparation of their reports on the cotton and woolen mills of Europe. Consul Catllin reports receiving special courtesies and assistance from this firm in the preparation of his valuable report on the cotton and woolen industries of Wurtemburg.

CORRECTION.

Consul-General Stanton, of St. Petersburg, desires to correct the table in his certificate given to Mr. C. F. Heisler, as published in Consular Report No. 21, p. 398, in report showing adulteration of American cotton.

The published table is as follows:

Marks and numbers of bales.	Weight of sand and dirt therein.
	Poods.
CxD, $65	29 48
= $25	9 48
W. O. X., $67	23 36
R. O. G., $131	15 24
R. O. G., $72	26 24
S. O. R., $93	2 24
F. 01-N	1 12
Illegible	2 24

It should be as follows:

Marks and No. of bales.	Weight of sample before blowing.			Weight of sample after blowing.			Weight of sand and dirt.		
	Poods.	*Lbs.*	*Sol.*	*Poods.*	*Lbs.*	*Sol.*	*Poods.*	*Lbs.*	*Sol.*
CxD., No. 65	1	14	36	0	24	84	0	29	48
No. 25	0	29	48	0	20	00	0	9	48
W. O. X., No. 67									
R. O. G., No. 131	1	6	00	0	22	60	0	23	36
R. O. G., No. 72	0	37	00	0	21	72	0	15	24
S. O. R., No. 93	1	4	84	0	18	60	0	26	24
F. O. I. N	0	9	60	0	7	36	0	2	24
	0	5	24	0	4	12	0	1	12
Illegible	0	9	46	0	7	22	0	2	24
Total	5	36	10	3	6	58	2	29	48

Impure cotton.—Consul Shaw, of Manchester, writes as follows concerning this important subject:

It is a pleasure to be able to report that complaints about the alleged adulteration of American cotton have almost entirely ceased. The wide discussion of this subject

during the past year has doubtless directed special attention to the great importance of exercising the utmost care in ginning, grading, and packing our cotton, and as a result the supply has given much better satisfaction of late.

Our producers and merchants cannot be too careful in preparing cotton for English markets. Clean and pure cotton of even staple will always command an increased price, because English spinners prefer our cotton to any other, when they can rely on its purity and grade. The use of the best machinery in ginning, and the exercise of wise and safe inspection in baling and grading, will richly repay producers for the outlay, because the better the reputation of our cotton is for purity the higher will be the prices which it will bring in this market. Upon this important point there can be no two opinions, and for this reason it should be the constant aim of producers to reach the highest standard possible, in order that top prices may be realized for their popular cotton.

Trade of Manchester.—Consul Shaw, under date of October 18, 1882, submits the following review of Manchester trade:

The past year, as a whole, has not been as favorable for all classes of Manchester manufacturers as many confidently predicted it would be at the beginning. Competition has been keen in the home market, and prices have ruled low, and the production has more than kept up to the demand. At the present time considerable despondency exists among cotton manufacturers in this consular district. Profits are, and for months past have been, very small, and losses are not uncommon in the trade. I am assured that cotton spinners are finding it exceedingly difficult to secure sales of yarn at prices that will allow any margin of profit. Trade in this line is worse than it has been since the season of 1879, when a reduction of about 20 per cent. was made in the wages of operatives. There appears to be an over-production, which causes keen competition in disposing of yarn, thus forcing down prices to the lowest possible limit.

The Egyptian war caused great unrest among those who use Egyptian cotton, the fear being that the usual supply could not be secured. This led to large purchases of American cotton, and free purchases forced up the price. At the same time the price of yarn did not equal the increased price paid for cotton, and the uncertainty about the effect of the war, together with the enchanced cost of cotton, combined to make manufacturers a great deal of trouble.

The close of the war has been reassuring to this class, but low prices for yarn, as compared with the price of raw material, make spinners feel the severest pressure in working their mills under present conditions.

Growing competition abroad is the chief source of danger to manufacturers here. Every new mill erected in foreign countries has a direct influence on the demand for English manufactures. This competition is more keenly felt at present than it has been for a long time, and as home manufactures multiply, the difficulty of securing foreign markets for English goods will increase. There has been a very large export trade in English cotton-manufacturing machinery during the past year, and every machine set up and kept at work outside of England helps to supply a demand that otherwise would be likely to reach this market. The skill of English cotton operatives enables them to work up the raw material with a very small margin of waste, and this apparently small advantage, where every item of cost is cut down to the lowest limit, is of much importance to English manufacturers. In fact, in this particular operatives here have become experts in producing from every pound of pure cotton nearly its equivalent in manufactured goods. The loss from waste, after the impurities are removed, is surprisingly small, so perfect is the manipulation of the cotton from the time it leaves the picker until it is turned out of the loom.

Foreign commerce of Japan.—According to official returns forwarded to the department by Minister Bingham, under date of November 13, the foreign commerce of Japan was as follows for the month of September, 1882: Exports of domestic produce, 3,560,457 gold yen; imports, 2,427,631 gold yen; exports of specie and bullion, 174,239 gold yen; imports of specie and bullion, 361,641 gold yen. Balance of trade in favor of the country: merchandise, 1,132,826 gold yen; specie and bullion, 187,402 gold yen.

Philippine Islands.—Acting Consul Klinck sends the following report upon the commerce of Manila, Philippine Islands, for the month of September, 1882:

Hemp.—The total value of hemp exported was $348,760. That the production will suffer, now that the epidemic has invaded the principal hemp district, there is not

the slightest doubt, but to what extent it is impossible to say at present; 10,000 bales are, however, deducted from the estimate of production for this year. Cebú, Leite, and Samar continued free from cholera at latest dates, while in Albay the epidemic is spreading, but has not yet fairly taken possession of the province. Taking everything into account the year's receipt will probably not reach 370,000 bales.

Sugar.—Supplies from the interior being stopped, dealers do not care for business unless at prices which buyers cannot entertain. The total value of sugar exported was $249,679.

Rice.—The crops are short in the southern islands, but large in the two principal rice-producing provinces of Pangasinan and Nueva Ecija, where, unless the epidemic should interfere with the gathering, a good yield is anticipated.

Statement showing the principal articles of exports during the month of September, 1882.

Articles.		Quantity.	Value.	Duty.
Hemp	kilograms	2,552,808	$348,760	$5,105 62
Cordage	do	50,253	13,407	100 52
Indigo	do			
Liquid indigo	do	124,462	6,782	124 46
Sugar	do	4,085,169	249,679	5,719 24
Coffee	do	50,020	8,407	150 07
Sapan wood	do	324,608	7,461	129 85
Rice	do			
		7,187,320	634,496	11,329 76

Trade of Maceio.—Consular Agent Braasch reports as follows:

The Brazilian financial year ended June 30, 1882, shows little or no material progress for this province compared with the preceding one.

Notwithstanding the necessary capital having been raised, the works at the railroad to the interior are going on in as slow a way as can be imagined, and it is impossible to judge the day when the same will be finished.

The railroad which is destined to join the Lower and Upper Sao Francisco River is going very slowly but steadily ahead, although political jealousy puts always obstacles to it, and it is difficult to form a firm opinion as to when it will be completed.

The direct import is becoming more and more general, and although the bulk of trade is yet carried on through the neighboring provinces, Bahia and Pernambuco, it is evident that the direct import, especially from Europe, is annually augmenting, whilst the direct import from the United States had been limited to only three vessels with general cargo, and makes no visible progress, owing undoubtedly to the lamentable want of a regular communication by steamers.

The duties on direct import amount to $212,700, showing an increase over the last year of $13,400, or about 6¼ per cent.

The export of the principal articles shows the following figures: 409,595 bags of sugar, 68,298 bags of cotton.

The import of the last financial year, 1880–1881, was: 526,846 bags of sugar, 52,194 bags of cotton, and values about the same as the year under review.

The export custom-house duties amount to $189,200, showing an increase of $3,200, compared with the preceding year.

To the United States the export has been limited to 142,089 bags of sugar against 254,292 in 1880–1881, owing to the comparatively lower markets in the United States than in Europe.

The cotton exported from this province, being of a similar quality as that of the United States, went to England and Russia, with the exception of about 3,600 bags, which went to the south of this empire.

The export to the United States by American vessels amounted to 19,094 bags of sugar. To Europe or to the south of this empire nothing has been exported under the American flag.

The sanitary state of this town and province has been a very satisfactory one during the whole year, and no contagious diseases have been noted.

No disasters to American vessels on this coast have been reported during the year.

BATHURST.

Statement showing the imports and exports at Bathurst, R. G., for the year ended December 31, 1881.

Imports.				Exports.			
Whence imported.	Value.			Whither exported.	Value.		
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
United Kingdom	57,332	12	3½	United Kingdom	12,425	8	4
Sierra Leone	29,121	19	6	British West Indies	1,770	1	2
British West Indies	1,416	19	10	France	107,167	14	7
France	8,590	0	8	United States	325	4	0
United States	427	9	6	Leeward coast not British possessions.	2,775	16	5
Leeward coast not British possessions.	6,032	1	1	Windward coast, including Gorée, Senegal, Cape Verde Islands.	15,952	12	9
Windward coast, including Gorée, Senegal, Cape Verde Islands.	39,667	12	5				
Total imports	142,588	15	3½	Total exports	140,416	17	3

GEO. WM. LEBRUN COLRIE,
Acting United States Vice-Consul.

BATHURST, R. G.,
August 2, 1882.

Automatic silk reeling.—Consul Peixotto reports the following concerning the invention for the reeling of raw silk by automatic machinery:

A striking feature in the exports from Lyons to the United States for the seven months of the present year, ending July 31, is the large increase in the shipment of the raw material.

For the same period in 1881 the total of raw silk shipped to the United States from Lyons was 3,570,960 francs. For 1880 it was only 908,753 francs.

This year (for the first seven months) the value of the raw silk shipped from Lyons to New York was 5,423,076 francs, an increase of 1,852,216 francs over last year, and of 4,514,323 francs over 1880.

If these figures prove anything they clearly demonstrate the growing importance of silk manufacture in the United States.

There is no source of industry which contributes more to the happiness and advantage of a people than sericulture, and as we have now as a nation proved our competence for manufacture, the pressing necessity for the moment is to discover the means by which we can render sericulture as profitable as we have the manufacture of goods from silk tissue.

It is, therefore, with pleasure that I announce the success of our young countryman, Mr. Edward W. Serrell, jr., in the discovery and successful application of automatic machinery to the reeling of silk. This invention, patented now in all countries, will speedily enable the American people to engage in sericulture, with the assurance that their labor will prove remunerative, and that in a very few years they will be able to produce the raw material and *reel* silk as well and as profitably as they now spin and weave it.

On this important subject I hope to be able very soon to submit an extended report.

Population of French cities and of all France.—The government of the republic, after rectification, publishes in its official journal the results of the quinquennial census, taken on the 18th of December last. According to the official figures given the population of the city of Lyons is fixed at 376,613. The census of 1876 gave the population at 342,815; the increase is, therefore, 33,798. The population of the department of the Rhone, in which Lyons is situated, was, in 1876, 705,131. It is now given at 741,490, an increase of 36,339.

The increase of the city of Lyons appears, therefore, at 33,798, and that for the department outside of the city but 2,541.

It is a remarkable fact, says the Medical Journal of Lyons, "that since the last census was taken (1876), a period of five years, the excess of deaths over births has been more than 3,000." It should not, therefore, be claimed that the great increase above noted belongs to the city, being simply a movement of the rural population towards the great center.

The total population of France, as given by the same official organ, is fixed at 37,672,048. In 1876 it was given at 36,905,788, an increase, therefore, only of 766,260.

The population of the leading cities is given as follows:

Cities.	Population.	Increase over 1876.
Paris	2,269,023	280,217
Lyons	376,613	33,798
Marseilles	360,099	41,231
Bordeaux	221,305	6,165
Lille	178,144	15,369
Toulouse	140,289	8,647

It will be seen that Lyons continues to be the second city of France in point of population.—(*From a report by Consul Peixotto.*)

Exports from Lyons to the United States.—The declared exports from the consular district of Lyons to the United States for the month ending August 31 amounted to $1,598,128. For the first eight months of the present year the declared exports to the United States amounted to $9,338,246. For the same period of 1881 the exports were $7,515,687. his shows an increase for 1882 over 1881 of $1,822,559.—(*Consul Peixotto.*)

French silk goods trade.—Consul Peixotto, of Lyons, reports that—

The exports of pure silk goods from France to foreign countries for the first six months of 1882 were 166,785,000 francs; for 1880, 110,035,000 francs; and 1881, 107,487,000 francs. Of these amounts Lyons exported, in 1880, 46,434,267 francs; in 1881, 41,381,202 francs; and in 1882, 68,156,409 francs.

The important increase for the present year will be more manifest when to the foregoing export of pure silk goods is added those of mixed fabrics, such as silk and cotton and silk and linen. Of these latter goods the export for the first six months of 1881 was 26,500,000 francs against 37,000,000 francs for the same period of the present year.

A similar increase is to be noted in all the branches accessory to the silk manufactures of Lyons, such as tulles, crapes, trimmings, &c.

French imports.—Consul Peixotto, of Lyons, says that—

According to the official customs returns, the total imports of France during the first seven months of the present year amounted to 2,825,902,000 francs, against 2,746,003,000 in 1881. The exports from France for the same periods were, 1882, 2,022,929,000 francs; 1881, 1,833,450,000 francs.

An analysis of these figures show an increase in the wealth of the country as the excess in the articles imported entered into production, and the difference in the imports and exports were principally in articles for consumption.

Trade of Samana.—The commercial agent at Samana, San Domingo, reports having obtained from the officers of the custom-house in that city a table showing the exports and imports at that port during the year 1881, and incloses the same to the Department just as they were received. According to these reports, which are not in shape for publication, the

imports during the year amounted to $32,533, and the exports to $59,037. No details of the trade are given.

Trade of Rio Grande do Sul.—The vice-consul reports as follows for the quarter ending September 30, 1882:

The quarter ending September 30 is always one of comparative inactivity, and this year has been decidedly below the average as regards commercial affairs.

Imports from the United States have been limited to two cargoes of flour and one of lumber. In each case the bearer was compelled to put into Santa Catharina and lighten by discharging part cargo, in order to cross the Rio Grande Bar.

Exports are summed up as follows:

	Value.
63,605 dry cattle hides	$213,720 10
16,023 wet salted hides	68,034 80
16,205 kilograms wool	3,368 82
5,950 kilograms of horse hair	2,897 20
Sundries	3,254 81
Total	291,255 73

A new feature in the export trade is the shipment of considerable parcels of dry hides and hair by steamer in transit to Rio de Janeiro, and thence by steamer to New York So long as the bar is not improved this mode of transport is likely to increase.

The bar has been very unfavorable all through the quarter, and as many as 50 vessels accumulated inside, laden, and unable to cross for want of water. Some were detained fifty, sixty, and even seventy days. The serious loss entailed by such delay to exporters needs no comment. A new chief of the pilot service has been appointed, from whom great things are expected, but until the government sets to work no real improvement can be looked for, and 9½ feet is a full draught for any vessel coming this way.

The railroad in the south of the province is progressing slowly, but by the end of the year we are promised an opening of part of the line. The contracting company have suffered much through delayed material, owing to the state of the bar.

Freights have ruled high, but as vessels cannot load over half cargo as a rule, the advantage disappears in the quantity received.

South Russian coal.—The consular agent at Taganrog, Mr. Hoyland, reports as follows concerning the coal fields of Southern Russia:

The bituminous coal fields of Southern Russia are well known and have a world spread reputation for quantity, and as regards quality all those who know them find it of the best sort. There are different seams supplying all descriptions, from little inferior to the best Cardiff to the best kinds of house coals. Three reasons, so to speak, have hitherto kept these coals from competing with British produce at the Russian ports of the Black Sea, namely:

1st. The bad method of working the coals and the impossibility of getting it screened.

2d. The heavy railway tariff for the transport, and the want of proper branch lines.

3d. The great cost of putting it on board ship, owing to the proper want of means for loading, and also on account of the shallowness of the water at the quay.

But once these are removed there is no doubt that a great change will take place.

The first obstacle has already to a great extent been overcome, and it cannot be long before the other two will be taken into serious consideration and something done towards doing away with them.

During 1881 for the first time the exports of bituminous coal reached a respectable figure, and failing proper statistics can be estimated at about 2,000,000 poods, or equal to about 32,260 tons English. This, however, is but a trifle compared to what might and will eventually be shipped, as it is an anomaly that, situated only some 600 miles from Odessa, the coal fields of Russia should be unable to compete in their own markets.

Changes in the Portuguese tariff.—Under date of October 21, Consul Du Pont Syle, of Funchal, transmits a report concerning some recent changes in the Portuguese tariff affecting the imports into the colony of Madeira. The change applies to tariff on packages (coverings), and, as will be seen by the list hereto appended, increases the duty on many articles of import from the United States, the principal ones being wheat, corn, flour, and kerosene.

Classification.	Exterior coverings.		Interior coverings.	
	Rate.	Duty.	Rate.	Duty.
		Per cent.		*Reis.*
1. Twilled cotton bags, containing cereals and legumes.	Ad valorem.	50	Each	240
2. Twilled cotton bags, containing other articles.	....do	10	....do	240
3. Plain cotton bags, containing cereals and legumes.	....do	50	... do	140
4. Plain cotton bags, containing other articles.	... do	10	....do	60
5. Flax bags, containing cereals and legumes.	....do	50	....do	60
6. Flax bags, containing other articles	....do	10	....do	30
7. Bales of flax material	....do	10	....do	30
8. Vessels and boxes of wood	... do	10	Ad valorem.	25 per cent.
		Reis.		*Reis.*
9. Vessels and boxes of tin	Kilograms ..	120	Kilograms ..	120
10. Vessels and boxes of zinc or cast iron ..	....do	30	....do	30
11. Vessels and boxes of wrought iron	....do	80	....do	80
12. Vessels and boxes of copper and brass	....do	200	....do	200
13. Vessels of blown or cast glass (except as in No. 14).	....do	100	....do	100
14. Vessels of common glass, black, green, or yellow.	....do	5	....do	5
15. Crockery	....do	2	....do	2
16. Crockery, fine	... do	75	....do	75
17. Fine clay vessels	....do	100	.. do	100
18. China vessels	....do	200	....do	200
19. Trunks and portmanteaus, except those with baggage.	Ad valorem.	25 per cent.	Ad valorem.	25 per cent.

English agriculture.—Consul King, of Birmingham, reports as follows concerning the English crops of 1882:

In reporting upon the past year in this part of England, the weather is a matter of the greatest importance. The winter was a mild and dry one and the spring was very promising; so that sanguine people predicted a great harvest, and most persons expected at least a good one. It is so many years since England has had an ordinarily good harvest that the feeling of relief and expressions of rejoicing were very general, but they were premature. Farmers hereabouts have told me that they have never seen so heavy a crop of grass as that of this year. But just at the haymaking time wet weather set in and the result is that but little hay has been saved that is not in a damaged condition.

Several inventions have been announced for artificially drying and curing hay, either on the meadow or in the rick; but I have not heard favorable reports of any of them from farmers in this district.

The harvest weather for other crops was much better, but considerable damage had already been done by the continued wet weather of June and July, which prevented ripening where it did not beat down and destroy.

The result, then, in mid-England, is that this year, instead of being very good, has only been less bad than the five or six agricultural years immediately preceeding it. This not only discourages farmers, but has also a depressing effect upon the manufacturing interests, which feel keenly the effect of a million or two pounds sterling difference in the value of the crops of the country.

Nevertheless, as I have said, the harvest has been a little better and home trade has also improved a little. Foreign trade has also increased slightly.

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C

COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

23330

TARIFFS

OF

SPAIN, NORWAY, ITALY, HAWAII,

AND

BRITISH GUIANA.

No. 26½.—December, 1882.

PUBLISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1883.

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TARIFFS

OF

SPAIN, ITALY, NORWAY, HAWAII, AND BRITISH GUIANA.

NEW SPANISH TARIFF.

REPORT BY MR. DWIGHT REED, SECRETARY OF LEGATION AT MADRID.

In accordance with an act dated the 6th July, 1882, providing for a new Spanish tariff, a royal order was issued on the 23d of that month giving to the public said tariff and ordering that the same should go into effect on the 1st August.

This order, together with the tariff, was published in due time in the "Gaceta de Madrid," but I deemed it best to await its publication in pamphlet form, together with the rules and regulations for carrying it into effect, before making a translation of the same. The pamphlet did not make its appearance until the latter part of August, since which time I have been engaged, when my other duties would permit, in making a translation of the essential part of it, which translation I have now the honor to transmit herewith, together with a copy of the pamphlet in question.

An extended review of the tariff does not seem necessary, but I deem it proper to say that its supposed benefits are only to be enjoyed by nations having treaties of commerce with Spain, and those which have no such treaty will pay the duties named in the first column, which are the same, with perhaps few exceptions, as those of the tariff of 1877.

The countries having treaties of commerce with Spain at the time the tariff went into effect are the following: Germany, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Netherlands and colonies, Portugal, Russia, Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, Belgium, Austria-Hungary, Anam, and France and Algeria; and the countries enjoying the benefit of the most-favored-nation clause are China, United States of Colombia, Japan, Morocco, Paraguay, Persia, Peru, Siam, and the Hawaiian Islands.

The treaties with Germany, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Netherlands and colonies, Portugal, Russia, Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, and Turkey, will expire during the present month, and up to the present time only those with Germany and Sweden and Norway have been extended until the 15th of December next. All the remaining countries will pay, the day after the expiration of their treaty, if no extension shall be made, the duties named in the first column of the tariff.

So far as the products of the United States are concerned, they will, of course, pay the duties named in the first column of the tariff.

DWIGHT T. REED.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Madrid, October 26, 1882.

MINISTRY OF FINANCE (HACIENDA).

ROYAL DECREE.

In conformity with my council of ministers and the opinion of the board of tariffs and valuations, I have decreed the following:

ARTICLE 1. The inclosed customs tariff, reformed in accordance with the law of 6th instant, upon the application of base 5th of the law of 1st July, 1869, and that of 30th June ultimo, in regard to the commercial relations with the provinces of Ultramar.

ART. 2. In compliance with the provisions of article 4 of said law of 6th instant, the reductions of duties which result in the new tariff will only be granted to such goods as may be the product of and proceed from nations which may have in force treaties of commerce with Spain. The duties named in the first column of the reformed tariff shall be exacted on the goods produced in or proceeding from other nations.

ART. 3. The new tariff shall go into effect on the 1st day of August next; the duties named in the same shall be exacted on all the products and merchandise which may have been declared in the customs for consumption after said date.

ART. 4. All decrees, orders, and provisions of any kind, which may not agree with the provisions of the present decree, are abolished.

ART. 5. The minister of finance (hacienda) shall make the necessary provisions for the due execution of the preceding dispositions.

Given at San Ildefonso, on the 23rd July, 1882.

ALPHONSE.

The Minister of Finance (Hacienda),
J. F. CAMACHO.

LAW OF TARIFFS, JULY 1, 1869.

Article 9 of the law of budgets of receipts ("ingresos") for the economic year of 1869-'70, from 1st July, 1869.

The customs tariff duties shall be reformed according to the basis established in Appendix C.

BASIS CITED IN THE PREVIOUS ARTICLE.

1. All kinds of merchandise is admitted into trade in the Spanish dominions of the peninsula and adjacent islands, with the exception only of articles, the circulation of which may be prohibited by the penal laws, those of public safety, and those pertaining to articles whose sale is limited by the government to certain persons ("estancados").

2. The exportation of all the products of the country, whether natural or artificial, of whatever kind, and of national products, is allowed.

3. A tax on the importation of merchandise specified in the tariff, and called as heretofore customs duty, shall be exacted. This tax shall be of three kinds:

The first shall be called extraordinary, and may extend in generality to 30 per cent. of the value of the merchandise on which it may be imposed, and to 35 per cent. only in cases which may be determined by base 4.

The second shall be called fiscal and may extend to 15 per cent. *ad valorem*.

The third shall be called balance ("balanza") tax, and shall consist of a small quantity per unit, weight, or measure.

4. The merchandise charged heretofore with a protective duty shall pay up to 30 per cent.

Articles among which are those now prohibited, and which may be determinately specified, shall pay up to 35 per cent.; also those articles which, owing to their high price or to their general consumption, although not of an absolute necessity, shall pay a similar additional duty.

The remainder of merchandise shall pay fiscal or balance duties in the manner which the government may determine.

5. During six years from the 1st of July instant, the duties named as "extraordinary" shall be unalterable.

After that date these duties will be gradually reduced from the seventh to the twelfth year, until the maximum rate of the fiscal duties shall have been reached. (See law of 6th of July, 1882.)

The manner of reduction for each article shall be determined in the details of the tariff.

6. Exportation duties shall only be paid on the following articles: Cork in rough or

tablets from the province of Gerona; rags of old linen, cotton, and hemp, and of used materials of the same. Lead ores sulphides ("galenas"). Leads, and leads mixed with oil for paint (white lead), and silver leads.

The maximum of duties to be imposed on these articles shall be 10 per cent.

7. The classifications of merchandise shall be made in generic groups, and not in specific subdivisions; the standard price of the article for the imposition of the duty shall be that of greatest importation of articles included in each group.

The valuation of the goods shall be made by taking the average of the prices which the articles may have at the places (where duties are paid) on the coasts and frontiers, and in every case a certain per cent. shall be converted, for the concrete imposition, into a fixed rate of unity of weight, measurement, or count.

8. No alteration whatever shall be made in the tariff duties by orders or decrees, except in the case anticipated in base 5.

In regard to classifications, the rectifications which experience may advise may be made every three years on the proposition of the director of the branch and in view of the opinion of the board of tariffs.

9. No exemption, reduction of duties, on behalf of industry, public establishment, co-operation, nor person, of whatever class, shall be conceded.

This basis does not abolish the franchises enjoyed by the diplomatic corps, in accordance with treaties.

10. A commission of valuations shall be created, the object of which will be to form and publish every year tables of the average prices of merchandise during the year, the administration taking into account the observations made by tradesmen and manufacturers in regard to the same.

These tables shall serve to make out the accounts of rates in the statistics of importation, exportation, and transit, and to rectify, in accordance with them, the tariff in the case determined by base 5.

11. The tariff duties shall continue to be collected in the custom-houses established, or which may be established, by the government, which will give to each (custom-house) such authorization as it may deem proper.

The government may establish general warehouses ("depositos"), where all classes of merchandise may be admitted.

12. The customs (houses) shall be governed by regulations prepared by the government, in which shall be established the directions, rules, and formalities for the importation, exportation, coasting, and transit trade.

The questions which may grow out of these operations shall be decided by the government without causing expense or damage to the parties concerned.

13. The government, in accordance with these bases, shall prepare the tariffs, which shall go into effect on the 1st July next.

14. The minister of finance ("hacienda") shall dictate the necessary provisions for the organization of custom (houses) during the month of July next, subject to the following rules:

1. Stability of officers.

2. Responsibility and punishment of all misdemeanors ("faltas"), with fines or dismissals after having been tried.

3. Increase of salaries, within the credits mentioned in the law of budgets for this service.

4. The filling of positions newly created from among the individuals of the branch, both active and inactive ("cesantes"), after having had due regard to services rendered (previo concurso).

5. Admittance through examination ("oposician rigorosa"), and promotion by rotation ("escala") and contest ("concurso").

6. Simplification and rapidity in dispatch of "expedientes," in accordance with the basis 12.

Suspension of the application of base 5 of the law of 1st July, 1869.

Royal decree of June 17, 1875, declared a law by that of July 17, 1876. (See the law of 6th July, 1882.)

ARTICLE 1. The application of base 5, of Appendix C of the law of budgets of 1st July, 1869, according to which, from the 1st of July next, the extraordinary custom duties must be gradually reduced to the maximum of the standard of the fiscal, is suspended.

ART. 2. The Cortes of the Kingdom, to which the government shall acquaint with this decree, shall fix the date when the provisions of said base must be executed.

Law of 6th July, 1882, repealing the suspension of base 5 of the tariff law, and ordering the rectification of the tariffs.

Alphonse XII, by the grace of God constitutional King of Spain, to all who shall see and hear the present, know: that the Cortes have decreed and we have sanctioned the following:

ARTICLE 1. The order suspending the carrying out of base 5 of law of tariffs in force, issued by royal decree of 17th June, 1875, is canceled.

ART. 2. The gradual reduction of the extraordinary duties to fiscal duties provided by base 5 of the tariff shall be made as follows:

First. Duties which exceed 15 per cent. and not 20 per cent. shall be reduced to 15 per cent. on the 1st August of the current year.

Second. The other extraordinary duties, from 20 per cent. inclusive and upwards, shall be reduced to 15 per cent. by reduction being made on the said first day of August next, the second on the 1st July, 1887, and the third and last on the same day and month of 1892.

Within one year previous to the date fixed in the preceding paragraph for making the second reduction of the extraordinary duties, the government will name a commission composed of senators, deputies, manufacturers, agriculturists, merchants and members of the consultive board of tariffs, with a view to taking information, and in consequence of such information, to report whether or not it will be convenient to the general interests of the country for the reduction to take place on that date or be suspended till 1st of July, 1892, on which day it shall be made in union with the third (and last reduction).

ART. 3. In accordance with base 8 of said law of tariffs, the rectification of the valuations and classifications of the same shall be made within the time named in the previous article, the consultive board of tariffs and valuations having been previously heard.

ART. 4. The reduction of duties which may grow out of the application of the first of the three reductions provided for by this law shall only be applied to merchandise which may be produced by, and proceed from, nations which may have treaties of commerce with Spain.

On merchandise which may proceed from other nations, the duties named in the tariff in force for nations which have no treaty of commerce shall be exacted, or those (duties) which may be hereafter established.

ART. 5. Before realizing the second reduction of extraordinary duties, in case this should be done in accordance with the second paragraph of article 2, the government will open negotiations with the countries with which we may be connected by treaties of commerce to obtain from said states, as a reciprocal equivalent, new reductions in the tariff duties collected from articles of Spanish production. In case these concessions should not be obtained, the second reduction of the extraordinary duties shall not be made until the 1st of July, 1892, on which date said reduction shall be made in union with the third and last reduction; and the duties which may result from it shall only be applied to the nations with which new treaties of commerce may be celebrated, on account of the present ones having been abrogated.

ART. 6. The government shall continue to charge importation and navigation duties on the products, vessels, and merchandise proceeding from countries which may in any way specially injure our products and our trade.

TRANSITORY ARTICLES. The specific duties which may be established by the reformed customs tariff shall be exacted in accordance with the prescriptions of this law on all the products and manufactures which may be declared for consumption in the customs from the 1st of August of this year.

We, therefore, order all tribunals, justices, chiefs, governors, and other authorities, both civil and military and ecclesiastic, of any kind and dignity whatever, to keep and cause to be kept, fulfil and carry out the present law in all its parts.

Given at the palace, 6th July, 1882.

I, the King.

The minister of finance (*Hacienda*):

JR. FR'CO CAMACHO.

DISPOSITIONS FOR THE APPLICATION OF THE TARIFF.

DISPOSITION FIRST.

Articles free of duty.

The following articles shall not pay any tariff duty on their importation into the Peninsula and Balearic Islands:

1. Mineral waters, with the exception of their "envases."*
2. Trees, vine-shoots ("sarmientos"), and plants (see the note of the disposition 14).
3. Lime (protoxide of calcium).
4. Minerals of copper, gold, and silver.
5. Samples of felt ("fieltro"), stained paper and textures up to 40 centimeters length.
6. Samples of lace and ribbons ("pasamaneria") in small pieces without any commercial value or of use.
7. Gold, silver, and platina in jewels and in table services, broken pieces ("vajilla inutilizadaz"), ingots (barras), coins ("monedas"), pieces and dust of precious metals, and silver and gold in an unmanufactured form ("tejos").
8. Gold, silver, and platina worked up in Spain.
9. Pearls, broken pearls, and misshapen pearls ("aljofar"), and precious stones.
10. Silk in cocoons, relicts of cocoons, and silk seeds.
11. Gypsum (sulphate of lime).

DISPOSITION SECOND.

Articles free of duty, under the conditions stated.

1. Articles of dress, toilet, and comfort objects, bed and table clothing; books, tools, and portable instruments, theater clothing, jewels, and table plate (used) carried by travelers in their luggage in a quantity in proportion to their position, occupation, and circumstances.

When travelers do not take their luggage with them, the clearing of the same may be done by the conductors or persons authorized for that purpose, whenever it shall be justified, in the judgment of the administration, that the objects are destined to particular use.

2. Coral gathered by Spaniards and taken direct in a national ship, these facts having been previously justified.
3. Fine arts works executed by Spaniards abroad, and those which may be acquired by the government, academies, or other official corporations, intended for museums, galleries, or studios, in cases in which these circumstances shall be proved.
4. Archæology and numismatic objects (medals and coins), intended for public museums, academies, scientific and artistic corporations, their destination having been previously justified.
5. The director-general of customs will give the necessary orders for the free importation of rosaries, sanctuary and other similar objects, which may be introduced by the general administration of the pious work ("Obra pia") of Jerusalem.
6. Objects and collections of minerals, of botanical and zoology, and models in small pieces for public museums and educational institutions, academies, and scientific and artistic corporations, their destination having been previously justified.

NOTE.—If the regulations in each case are not complied with, or if the examination is not entirely satisfactory, the exemption will be considered as annulled, and the customs will impose the corresponding duties.

DISPOSITION THIRD.

Articles free of duty after the formalities provided by the customs regulations shall have been complied with.

1. Casks, wooden, hooped, and other "envases" for exportation of national merchandise.
2. Casks, sacks, and large casks hooped with metal imported with merchandise which does not include said ("envases") in payment of duties, and when the same may have to be exported.

* The word "envases" will frequently occur. It signifies the package in which the substance is contained, as, for example, the bottle for liquids, drugs, medicines, wines, spirits, &c.; the tin case for such articles as sardines, fruits, biscuits, &c.; the inner packings of damageable articles, to the exclusion of the wooden case, box, cask, or barrel.

3. Carriages, trained animals, portable theaters, panoramas, wax figures, and other similar objects for public performances, which may be temporarily imported and which may depart from the kingdom.

4. Furniture used by persons residing in the provinces of Ultramar, and in the Canary Islands, by Spaniards residing abroad, and by foreigners who may come to settle themselves in Spain.

5. Furniture, luggage, and effects of the diplomatic corps.

6. Foreign articles coming to Spanish exhibitions.

7. Submarine telegraph cables.

8. Cereals in sheaves or ears, hay, straw, and grasses which may be imported through the frontier of nations with which Spain may have treaties of commerce.

9. Samples which may not be free of duty according to the 1st disposition, and which may be imported by manufacturers, tradesmen or commercial travelers of the nations with which Spain may have commercial treaties.

Disposition Fourth.

Upon the payment of duty on merchandise not mentioned in the tariff.

1. Spun goods ("hilados") composed of two or more textile materials will be appraised according to the item of the material paying highest duty.

2. Texture in which the threads run lengthwise, whether they form the base or whether they may have been added with the object of forming the patterns or to give it greater thickness, although the threads may be cut or not, shall be considered as warp. Threads which may form the width of the texture and which may form the pattern or which may increase its thickness shall be considered as weft.

3. Textures composed of cotton warp and weft of any other vegetable material, or vice versa, shall pay according to the items of group 3 of the fifth class to which they may belong, according to their class.

4. Textures which have the warp entirely composed of cotton threads, and the weft also entirely composed of woolen threads or of woolen threads mixed with cotton threads, whatever may be the proportion of the mixture in the weft, shall be considered as textures of wool mixed with cotton.

5. Textures composed of threads of three different materials shall pay as follows:

Warp or weft.	Weft or warp.	Shall be considered as—
Cotton threads	Flax or hemp threads and other vegetal fibers.	Textures of flax or hemp.
Threads of vegetal fibers	Threads of vegetal fibers and wool or hair.	Textures of vegetal fibers mixed with wool.
Do	Threads of vegetal fibers and silk	Textures of vegetal fibers mixed with silk.
Do	Threads of wool and silk	Do.
Threads of wool or hair	Threads of two or more vegetal fibers.	Textures of vegetal fibers mixed with wool.
Do	Threads of vegetal fibers, wool, or hair.	Textures of wool.
Do	Threads of vegetal fibers and silk	Textures of wool mixed with silk.
Threads of silk	Threads of different vegetal fibers.	Textures of vegetal fibers mixed with silk.
Do	Threads of vegetal fibers, wool, or hair.	Textures of silk mixed with wool.
Threads of flax and hemp	Threads of flax, hemp, and other vegetal materials.	Textures of flax or hemp.
Threads of vegetal fibers and wool or hair.	Threads of vegetal fibers and silk	Textures of wool mixed with silk.
Do	Threads of vegetal wool and silk	Do.

6. When in the mixed part (warp or weft) the threads of the material which may pay the highest duties shall not exceed 10 per cent. of the total weight of the texture; said threads shall not be taken into account for the payment of duties, but will pay as if it were a texture mixed with other materials.

7. Tulles will pay duty on the material of which the foundation ("fondo") is composed, and when there is a mixture in the foundation, duty shall be paid on the preponderating material.

8. Shawls with fringes ("pañuelos con flecos") will pay, including their weight, according to the class, "partida," the texture may belong.

9. Cloths embroidered by hand or machinery out of the loom and those mixed with fine metals or of imitation, whether embroidered or not, shall pay the duty corresponding

to their class, and an additional charge of 30 per cent. on the same. This additional charge shall be 50 per cent. for articles of nations which have no commercial treaty with Spain.

10. Clothing ready made, including linen articles, whether completely finished of merely basted, shall pay on their total weight the duty on the cloth of which the exterior part of the article is composed, and an additional charge of 30 per cent. on the same. Should the clothing be embroidered, said additional charge shall be computed upon the duty for embroidered cloth. Said additional duty shall be 50 per cent. for articles coming from nations which have no commercial treaty with Spain, exacting, when the clothing is embroidered, the duty corresponding to embroidered cloth.

Knit textures are exempt from the above-mentioned additional duty and will be appraised according to their respective tariffs without any increase.

11. Wreck remains ("despojes") of foreign vessels which may have been wrecked on the Spanish coast shall pay 8 per cent. on their value, realized at public auction, under the formalities prescribed in the regulations.

Disposition Fifth.

Packings ("Envases y empaques").

By "envase exterior" shall be understood that which is visible when the package ("bulto") is unopened; every inclosure contained therein is an "envase interior."

Articles whose duty is fixed by weight—oils and greases (except wax), honeys, meats, fish, tripe in brine, machinery, drugs and chemical productions—shall pay on the gross weight when they are contained in a single packing ("envase").

If any of these articles should come in one or more packings ("envase"), or in packets contained in the outside packing ("envase exterior"), only the weight of the merchandise of the inside packings or packets shall be included.

All other merchandise shall pay duty also on paper wrappings, ribbons, packets or inside packing ("envases interiores"), provided always that they are not "cajas or estuches" (fancy boxes, &c.), assessed separately.

Caps or capsules for forearms, hooks and eyes, pins, metal eyelet-holes, metallic pens, games, and toys, instruments of science and art, and other similar objects, which pay also on the interior, fancy boxes ("cajas o' estuches interiores") containing them, and with which they are generelly sold, at retail.

Chinese silk handkerchiefs which pay according to their net weight, without including the paper in which they come wrapped nor those placed in the foldings.

The "envases" for alkaloids and their salts, those for brandy, liquors, beer, cider, and wines, shall be assessed separately, according to their respective materials. Bottles in which sparkling wine is imported from nations which have commercial treaties with Spain are excepted, and are exempt from duty; also the casks for other wines of the same nations are exempt from duty.

Rollers, deal and card-boards (including those metalized), on which fabrics are wrapped, oil-cloths, laces, ribbons, &c. ("pasamaneria"), shall be deducted from the weight of those articles.

Casks, barrels, and large metal vessels shall pay the duty which corresponds to their class, except when they contain merchandise which pay on the gross weight.

Sacks, introduced as serving, for "envases" shall pay 10 centimes of peseta each, except in cases where the merchandise contained therein shall pay according to gross weight.

Disposition Sixth.

Tares.

From the gross weight of the merchandise below mentioned the following per cent. shall be discounted on account of tares:

	Per cent.
Cocoa and palm oil in barrels	20
Steel in boxes	10
Indigo:	
In boxes	15
In seroons	10
Sugar in boxes and hogsheads	14
Cinnamon:	
In boxes	20
In bags	8
Phosphorus:	
In tin boxes	30
In tin boxes packed in others of wood	50

	Per cent.
Madder dye ("grancina") in casks	20
Thread in packages or bundles	3
Tin sheets in boxes	10
Earthenware, porcelain, and fine clay:	
In boxes or casks	30
In baskets	16
Gypsum, smoking-pipes in casks	30
Glass and crystal, nitched or plain, silvered or unsilvered:	
In boxes or casks	40
In baskets and plain glass for glass windows in a single box	20

NOTE.—The glass and crystal contained in wooden cases is not subject to the above-mentioned tare.

Special tares.

Sugar in sacks ("bayones"*), for each sac, 750 grams.

	Per cent.
Liebig extract of meat in boxes	70
Cotton and flax thread on wooden spools, for the spools only	30
Silk threads and floss with silk on wooden spools, for the spools only	45
Laces, ribbons, &c., for the inside frames of wood, card-board or similar materials, except the textiles, off the net weight of the articles	10
Perfumery, for all "envases" and inside packings	25

NOTE.—Soaps which pay on the "envases interior" are excepted.

DISPOSITION SEVENTH.

Reimportation of national articles.

Merchandise, fruits, and national effects which may be exported abroad and returned to the Peninsula and Balearic Islands shall be considered as foreign, and shall be subject to the payment of duties named in the tariff. The following articles which will be admitted free of duty are excepted:

1. Paintings that are works of fine art, when they shall have been exported with the customs invoice, and when on their return the number of that document is quoted or the duplicate of the same is produced in order to make the due comparisons.
2. Books, provided always that the number of copies, the title of the book, and name of the printer are stated in the invoice.
3. Copper coins, returned from abroad or from the provinces of Ultramar, if on examination made in the mint of Madrid it is found to be Spanish coined ("cuño"), legitimate and in circulation, the customs shall send samples of the copper coin to the General Direction for said examination, suspending its clearance until the proper result of the examination shall have been received.

The following national articles shall also be admitted free of duty, after the rules established in the customs regulations shall have been complied with:

1. Wines and "envases."
2. Carrriages, saddle horses ("caballerias"), and other animals ("ganados") which may leave by land and which may be imported in the same manner.
3. Articles returned from foreign exhibitions.
4. Wrecks and remains of vessels wrecked abroad.
5. Staves and ores from the Irati Mountains and Roncal Valley in the province of Navarre, which may pass in transit through France.
6. Iron ores conveyed by the Bidasoa River to be reimported in transit through France.
7. Merchandise which may pass in transit through Portugal, in accordance with the regulation approved by royal decree of 7th February, 1877.

DISPOSITION EIGHTH.

Commerce with the provinces of Ultramar.

In conformity with the law 30th of June, 1882, commerce from the ports of the provinces of Cuba, Porto Rico, and Philippines, to those of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands, shall be subject, in regard to shipping and reception of merchandise, to the same formalities as those established by the customs regulations for the commerce between the ports of the peninsular provinces.

The products of Cuba, Porto Rico, and Philippines shall be admitted free of duty into the Peninsula and Balearic Islands, tobacco excepted, which shall be subject to

* "Bayones," *sacks made of palm leaves.*

the legislation in force, and brandy, sugar, cocoa, chocolate, and coffee will pay the duties fixed by said law.

Those duties which have to be abolished on 1st July, 1892, and reduced by a tenth part yearly until their extinction, will be collected, each economic year in the following form:

Merchandise product of and proceeding from Cuba and Porto Rico.

Time of reduction.	Brandy, per hectoliter.	Cocoa and chocolate, per 100 kilograms.	Coffee, per 100 kilograms.	Sugar superior to No. 14, Holland scale, per 100 kilograms.	Sugar inferior to No. 14, Holland scale, per 100 kilograms.
	Pesetas.	*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
From July 1, 1882, to July 1, 1883	10 00	25 00	20 00	12 00	5 50
From July 1, 1883, to July 1, 1884	9 00	22 50	18 00	10 80	4 95
From July 1, 1884, to July 1, 1885	8 00	20 00	16 00	9 60	4 40
From July 1, 1885, to July 1, 1886	7 00	17 50	14 00	8 40	3 85
From July 1, 1886, to July 1, 1887	6 00	15 00	12 00	7 20	3 30
From July 1, 1887, to July 1, 1888	5 00	12 50	10 00	6 00	2 75
From July 1, 1888, to July 1, 1889	4 00	10 00	8 00	4 50	2 20
From July 1, 1889, to July 1, 1890	3 00	7 50	6 00	3 60	1 65
From July 1, 1890, to July 1, 1891	2 00	5 00	4 00	2 40	1 10
From July 1, 1891, to July 1, 1892	1 00	2 50	2 00	1 20	55
From July 1, 1892	Free	Free	Free	Free	Free

When the preceding articles are the product of and proceed from the Philippines, they shall only pay the 5th part of the duties fixed for those of Cuba and Porto Rico.

The attestation ("comprobacion") of the number of the sugars, both of "tren comun" and "centrifugados," shall be made in the customs by the mere comparison of the color of the samples taken at the time of clearance with the official standard No. 14 of the Holland scale.

Transitory or temporary duty.

Sugar of all kinds, the products of and proceeding from the Spanish provinces of Ultramar, will pay the transitory or temporary duty of 8 pesetas and 50 centimes per 100 kilograms fixed by article 14 of the law of budgets of 1878–'79.

There shall be also exacted the transitory or temporary duty provided for by article 18 of the law of budgets of 1876–'77 on cocoa, coffee, and brandy of the same provinces, in the following form:

Cocoa, per 100 kilograms, 16 pesetas; coffee, per 100 kilograms, 27 pesetas; and brandy, for each hectoliter, 3 pesetas 75 centimes.

Municipal tax.

As provided in article 25 of the law of budgets of 1878–'79, with reference to article 43, that of July 11, 1877, there shall be collected as a municipal tax a sum equal to the transitory or temporary tax for sugar, cocoa, and coffee of the provinces of Ultramar.

DISPOSITION NINTH.

FREE PORTS.

Canary Islands.

The only ports of these islands which may trade with those of the Peninsula are those o Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Orotava, Ciudad del Real de las Palmas Sta. Cruz de la Palma, Arrecife de Lanzarote, Puerto de Cabras, San Sebastian, and Valverde.

The following products of these islands will be admitted free of duty:

Oil of tartago ("tartago").
Almonds.
Lupines (altramuces).
French beans (alubias).
Mineral soda (barrilla).
Chestnuts (castanas).
Barley (cebada).

Onions (cebollas).
Rye (centeno).
Cochineal (cochinilla).
Sweetmeats (dulces).
Straw (for hats).
Fruits.
Peas (garbanzos).
Seeds (semillas).
Indian corn (maiz).
Dyes (orchilla).
Potatoes.
Fish (pescado).
Filtering stones (piedras de filtro).
Stones for paving (losetas).
Silk in cocoon or pod, raw and worked.
Wheat.
Wine.

Goods, fruits, and effects introduced into the Canary Islands, proceeding from the Peninsula, shall lose their nationality and be considered as foreign ones, if they are returned to the Peninsula as unsalable or for other causes.

Merchandise, the product of and proceeding from the Spanish provinces of Ultramar, which may touch at Canaries shall preserve its nationality on its introduction into the Peninsula, the said ports being considered as deposits, but it must be included in the certificates ("documentacion") determined by the customs regulations.

Ceuta, Melilla Alhucemas, Peñon de la Gomera, and Chafarinas Islands.

Goods, fruits, and effects, whatever may be their origin, proceeding from the above mentioned ports and introduced into the Peninsula and Balearic Islands, shall be considered as foreign and will pay the duties of this tariff.

Fish, the product of and proceeding from the tunny fisheries ("almadrabas") of Ceuta, Melilla, and Chafarinas Islands will be admitted free of duty subject to the formalities established in the regulations.

Ammunitions of war and military effects, proceeding from all the free ports, when they come accompanied by the pass ("permit") or guide ("guia") of the corresponding commissary of war or chief of the military corps to which they may belong, will be admitted free of duty.

Disposition Tenth.

Commerce with Fernando Po and its dependencies.

Merchandise which may be the product of and which may proceed directly from the Spanish islands of Fernando Po and its dependencies, Annobon, Corisco, Elobey, and Cape of St. Juan, shall not pay any duty on their introduction into the Peninsula and Balearic Islands, as the trade will be considered as coasting trade.

All the products of the western coast of Africa brought to Fernando Po and its dependencies, and thence conducted directly to the Peninsula and Balearic Islands, shall pay three-fifths of the duties assigned in the tariff, always provided that they are accompanied by the documents required by the customs regulations.

Disposition Eleventh.

Direct importation.

It will be understood for tariff purposes that direct navigation shall be when ships which may have been loaded with merchandise in non-European ports may conduct the same to those of its destination in the Peninsula or Balearic Islands, without touching at any foreign port during the voyage.

Merchandise shall enjoy the benefits of direct "procedencia" in the following cases:

1. When vessels loaded with the same may enter foreign ports, through stress of weather, or to receive orders, without loading or unloading.
2. Whenever the vessels, through damage or an unavoidable sea accident, may be obliged to transship the merchandise to other vessels to be taken to its destination.
3. Products of the Philippine Islands which, being accompanied with the certificate of origin and of embarkation for the Peninsula, may have been transshipped during the voyage, but without unloading in any foreign port.
4. The same Philippine products with like certificates, although the vessels carrying the same may touch at other ports of India and China to complete their cargo.

5. Vessels which, carrying products of the provinces of Ultramar, may enter foreign ports of America to complete their cargo.

NOTES.—The certificates of nationality of merchandise and of its shipment shall be made on the presentation of the invoices certified to by the customs of Ultramar.

Damaged merchandise through stress of weather, transshipments to other vessels in foreign ports, shall be justified by certificates of the respective Spanish consuls. The customs shall verify the fact of direct importation ("procedencia") by the examination of the documents of navigation.

DISPOSITION TWELFTH.

Trade with nations which have celebrated treaties with Spain.

In compliance with article 4 of the law of 6th July, 1882, the reduced duties which may result from the application of the first of the three reductions provided by the said law, and which are fixed in the second column of this tariff, shall only be applied to the merchandise which may be produced and proceed from nations which have treaties of commerce with Spain. These are—

Nations.	Date of treaty.	Date of termination.
Germany	Mar. 30, 1868	Oct. —, 1882
Denmark	Sept. 8, 1872	Oct. —, 1882
Greece	Aug. 21, 1875	Oct. —, 1882
Italy	Feb. 22, 1870	Oct. —, 1882
Netherlands and colonies	Nov. 18, 1871	Oct. —, 1882
Portugal	Dec. 20, 1872	Oct. —, 1882
Russia	Feb. 23, 1876	Oct. —, 1882
Sweden and Norway	Feb. 28, 1871	Oct. —, 1882
Switzerland	Aug. 27, 1869	Oct. —, 1882
Turkey	Mar. 13, 1862	Oct. —, 1882
Belgium	May 4, 1878	May 4, 1884
Austria-Hungary	June 3, 1880	Apr. 14, 1887
Anam	Feb. 27, 1880	Sept. 26, 1890
France and Algeria	Feb. 6, 1882	Feb. 1, 1892

China, United States of Colombia, Japan, Morocco, Paraguay, Persia, Peru, Siam, and the Hawaiian Islands, in virtue of other treaties, will enjoy the treatment of the most favored nation.

The duties named in the first column of the tariff will be exacted on merchandise proceeding from other nations.

The duties of a nation which may have a treaty of commerce with Spain shall be applied without any condition to all merchandise which is not specially indicated in the tariff, and which may proceed directly from a nation having such treaty, provided always that on the verifications made of said merchandise when it is dispatched it is ascertained that it is not the product of a nation having such treaty.

For the merchandise marked with letter "C" in the margin of the tariff there shall be exacted from the importer, in order to prove the nationality of the same, a certificate of origin made out in conformity with the following rules:

RULE 1. The certificate of origin which the importer must present at the time of clearance shall consist of an official declaration made by the producer or manufacturer or person authorized by him, before the local authority of the place of production or of deposit, that the goods referred to in the certificate are from his manufactures or a product of his industry; the respective Spanish consuls shall legalize, without duties or expenses, the signatures of said authorities.

RULE 2. The certificate shall express the number, marks, numeration, and gross weight of the packages; and in regard to the merchandise therein contained, its material and class; with regard to threads ("hilados") and textiles it will be clearly expressed whether they are of cotton, hemp, or flax, wool or silk, or mixed with those materials.

RULE 3. Certificates of origin of the products of China and Japan, specially destined to Spain, shall be written in Spanish at the Spanish consulates in those empires, with the visé of the consul; and the vessels carrying the merchandise may transship it to other vessels without losing the benefits of the most-favored-nation clause, provided always that the transshipment is justified.

RULE 4. Merchandise of a country which may have a treaty of commerce with Spain, destined to Spain, accompanied by the corresponding certificate of origin, and which may pass in transit through another country having such a treaty, will not be required

to justify the transit; but when the transit takes place through a nation having no treaty of commerce, it must be so stated by a special certificate issued by the consul of Spain or by the respective foreign customs officials.

RULE 5. The certificates may be written in Spanish or in French. When they are written in any other language, they will be translated into Spanish (as the merchant may select) by official interpreters, ship-brokers, interpreters, commercial brokers, boards of agriculture, industry, and commerce of the locality, or by the consuls of the nations having treaties of commerce with Spain to which the merchandise may belong.

RULE 6. When the merchants receive the certificates without the requisites above set forth they may return them before the clearance, in order that the formalities omitted may be supplied, making use in the mean time of the place of storage granted the customs regulations, with the understanding that on applying for the clearance of the merchandise, accompanied by certificates of origin, this document shall be considered as definitely admitted.

RULE 7. If at the time of examination the corresponding certificates are not presented, and if presented they should not contain all the requisites, or they should not agree with all the merchandise referred to, they shall be null, and the duties fixed for nations which have no treaty of commerce with Spain shall be exacted.

RULE 8. The merchandise and effects in small quantities which travelers may bring in their baggage, proceeding from nations which have a treaty of commerce with Spain, will not require certificates of origin in order to enjoy the lowest duties established for said nations; but if on examination it is found that the effects and merchandise are the industrial product of countries having no treaty of commerce with Spain, the duties fixed in the first column of the tariff shall be exacted.

RULE 9. The minister of finances (hacienda) may at all times, when deemed proper, make exceptions in the requirements of a certificate of origin for merchandise marked letter "C" in the tariff.

DISPOSITION THIRTEENTH.

Premiums and drawbacks.

Exporters in the Peninsula of refined sugar shall have the option between the payment of a premium of 17 pesetas 39 centimes per each 100 kilograms of sugar which they may export, assigned by the law of 17th July, 1849, and the decree of 12th July, 1869, or the return (drawback) to them of the customs and consumption duties collected as transitory and additional municipal charge; provided always that the regulations in regard to the same, in accordance with the law of 22d June, 1880, shall have been complied with.

In order that the return (drawback), in case it should be preferred, may be authorized while its value may exceed the premium of 17 pesetas 39 centimes above mentioned, the exporters shall have to previously prove, through the means which the administration may have established or shall establish, that the refined sugar which is exported proceeds from sugar No. 14 inclusive, or inferior thereto, or from honey, the product of, and proceeding from, one or more of the Spanish provinces of Ultramar.

In no case and for no reason shall the premium and the return duties (drawbacks) be made at one and the same time.

A premium of 40 pesetas will be allowed to the constructors of national vessels for each ton (2.83 cubic meters) which the vessels constructed may measure, the formalities established having previously been complied with (law of 25th June, 1880).

The tariff duties which may have been paid by constructors or repairers of vessels and marine machinery, on materials of any kind imported from abroad for the construction, cleaning, and repairing of iron or wooden vessels shall be returned; also for worked material necessary for armament, and for material necessary for the construction and repair of engines and boilers of steam naval vessels, whatever may be the system and force of such apparatus.

In order to return the duties, the weight and bulk of the materials or effects shall be appraised (as expressed in the tariff) by the weight or bulk of the work when finished, so that that part of the duties corresponding to the waste ("mermas") and remainder ("desechos") of said materials or effects resulting from the construction or transformation when applied to said works may be credited to the treasury (decree law 22d November, 1868).

In order to effect the return of the duties, the rules of instruction at present in orce must be previously complied with.

DISPOSITION FOURTEENTH.

Prohibited articles of importation.

1. Arms of war,* projectiles, and ammunition, except by permission of the government.
2. Reproduction of hydrographic charts published by the marine (navy department).
3. Catapults or culverins ("cerbatanas"), air-guns.
4. Books and printed matter in Spanish in cases prescribed by law of copyright.
5. Maps and charts by Spanish authors in conformity with the same law.
6. Missals, breviaries, and other liturgical books of the Roman Catholic Church.
7. Moorish ("ochavos") coin.
8. Pictures, figures, and all other objects offensive to morality.
9. Pharmaceutical preparations or secret remedies of unknown composition.
10. Rosaries and other religious objects from holy places, introduced for commerce and private use.
11. Tobacco in the form and cases, specified in the rules of [government] monopoly "estanco."
12. Articles and objects, the entry of which may be prohibited by other ministries to avoid injury to the public health or damage to agriculture.

NOTE.—The importation at the present time of the following articles is prohibited:

1. Roots, shoots, graftings, all the residue of the vine, such as trunks, roots, leaves, and anything which may have served for its cultivation, although imported as wood or combustible, and all kinds of trees, shrubs, and live plants, with the exception of those dissected and properly prepared herbs.
2. Potatoes, their leaves, shoots, sprouts, and cuttings, and the sacks or packages ("envases") in which they may be brought from any part of America and Holland.
3. Lard in an untried state proceeding from the United States of America.

NOTICE.

1. The items of merchandise for which is exacted a certificate of origin (or its equivalent), in order to show that it is the product of a nation having a treaty of commerce with Spain, are marked with the letter *c*.
2. Items of the tariff whose present duties are extraordinary are marked with the letter *e*.
3. Items marked with an asterisk [*] pay duty according to weight.

* Pistols, revolvers, guns, and carbines which exceed 7 millimeters shall be considered as arms of war.

TARIFF FOR THE EXACTION OF DUTIES ON FOREIGN MERCHANDISE INTRODUCED INTO THE PENINSULA AND BALEARIC ISLANDS.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
			Pesetas.	*Pesetas.*
	CLASS I.—*Stones, earthy matters, minerals, crystal wares, and productions of pottery ("productos ceramicos").*			
	GROUP 1.—Stones and earthy productions employed in construction, arts, and industry:			
1	Marbles, jaspers, and alabaster in the rough, or in dressed pieces, squared, and prepared for taking the form.	100 kilograms.	37	37
e2	Marbles of all classes, cut into blocks, tables, or steps, of any dimensions, polished or not.	....do	3.75	3.10
e3	Marbles worked up or chiseled, in all classes of objects, polished or not.	....do	8.00	7.35
*4	Other stones and earthy substances employed in buildings, arts, and industry.	....do	06	06
	GROUP 2.—Mineral coal:			
*5	Mineral coals and coke (1)	Ton of 1,000 kilograms.	2.50	2.50
	GROUP 3.—Schist, bituminous matter ("betunes"), and their products:			
*6	Tar, pitch (breas), asphalt, bitumen, schist, and crude oils, derived from the same.	100 kilograms	41	41
	(1) NOTE.—The mineral coal and coke shall be cleared according to weight expressed in a certificate which the consul of Spain at the port of shipment will give to the captain of the ship bringing it, in which shall be set forth the quantity received on board, according to the charter-party and the bills of lading, the presentation of which shall be required for that purpose. In cases of doubt the customs may make the necessary comprobation. Article 29, of the law of budgets, of 11th July, 1877, fixed the duty on mineral coals at 2 pesetas 50 centimes.			
	(2) NOTE.—Crude oils derived from schists shall be understood to be those derived by the first distillation of the same, distinguishable by their yellowish color and density of 0.909 to 0.920 grades, or from 56⅔ to 57⅔ of the aerometer centesimal equivalent to 24.69 to 21.48 of Cartier grades.			
*7	Crude, natural, petroleums (3).			
	Law of budgets, 1878-'79:			
	Extraordinary duty	....do	8.34	8.34
	Transitory duty	....do	3.75	3.75
	(3) NOTE.—Crude, natural, petroleums are those which have a dark-greenish color, pronounced smell, devoid of clearness (transparencia), and contain essential oils which volatilize or dissolve at a temperature inferior to to 60° centigrade, and leave by distillation 230° centigrade a residuum; samples shall be sent to the general direction of all the petroleum cleared.			
8	Petroleums and other mineral oils, refined (4), and benzine.	....do	5.50	3.80
	(4) NOTE.—All mineral oils which do not unite the properties set forth in the two anterior notes shall be considered as refined oils.			
	Law of budgets of 1878-'79:			
	Extraordinary duty	....do	17.25	17.25
	Transitory duty	....do	3.75	3.75
	GROUP 4.—Minerals:			
*9	Mineral ores	Ton of 1,000 kilograms.	0.25	0.25
	GROUP 5.—Glass and glassware:			
e10	All sorts of glassware, common or ordinary (5)	100 kilograms.	8.00	6.50
	(5) NOTE.—Bottles, demijohns, and flasks, for holding oils, wines, drugs, perfumery, and chemical products, provided they are not raised or embossed, shall be considered as included in this item.			
ee11	Glass, and imitation glassware, although it be gilded or silvered inside (6).	....do	45.00	34.65
	(6) NOTE.—Bottles, glasses, cups, and other objects for table service, lighting, and ornaments, whether of crystal or white or colored glass, shall be included in this item.			
e12	Window and sheet glass	....do	17.50	16.04

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS I—Continued.			
	GROUP 5—Continued.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
c 13	Glass, silvered (as mirrors, looking-glasses, &c.), and glass for spectacles, watches, and clocks.	100 kilograms.	80.00	69.34
	GROUP 6.—Clay worked up ("loza," "porcelana"), &c:			
c 14	Clay in tiles, bricks, and roof-tile ("tejas"), for construction of edifices, ovens, &c. (7).	....do	06	06
	(7) NOTE.—In the application of this item it must be borne in mind that it only includes bricks, floor and roof tiles, or clay in the rough, which are to be employed in the construction of walls, ovens, &c.			
15	Clay in tiles, large and small, for floorings, colored and varnished tiles and pipes (8).	....do	1.50	1.50
	(8) NOTE.—This includes tiles for floorings, mosaic, as well as the above-mentioned objects, which are used for buildings, varnished, painted, enameled, made with washed or sifted clay.			
c c 16	All sorts of table earthenware plates, cups ("loza de pedernal"), and of fine clay, such as water-bottles, &c. (9).	....do	37.50	26.58
	(9) NOTE.—The objects of fine clay included in this item are those for table use, such as flower-pots, ornaments, and kitchen service ("vajilla").			
c 17	Porcelain	....do	52.50	37.50
	CLASS II.—*Metals, and all manufactures in which metal enters as a principal element.*			
	GROUP 1.—Gold, silver, and platinum:			
18	Gold in ("alhajas") jewelry or ornaments (10), including those with precious stones or pearls (12).	Hectogram ...	25.00	25.00
	(10) NOTE.—In the classification of jewelry or ornaments all small objects of luxury, valuable on account of workmanship and generally intended for ornament of persons of both sexes, will be included.			
	(12) NOTE.—In the dispatch of finished objects, including objects of jewelry ("joyeria") of gold, silver, or platinum, where mastic is used, a reasonable allowance will be made for the tare, owing to said mastic.			
19	Silver in jewelry or ornaments (see Note 10), including those with precious stones and pearls (see Note 12).	....do	3.50	3.50
c 18	Gold, silver, platinum worked into other objects (11), (see Note 12).	....do	2.60	2.60
	(11) NOTE.—In the classification of "vajilla" will be included utensils for domestic use, objects for church service, and in general all large pieces used for the ornamentation of apartments.			
	GROUP 2.—Iron and steel:			
	Cast iron:			
c 21	In ingots, and old castings	100 kilograms.	2.50	2.00
c 22	In pipes, of all classes	....do	4.70	3.50
c 23	In ordinary manufactures	....do	7.50	6.10
c 24	In fine manufactures, *i. e.*, those polished or furbished with coating of porcelain, or ornaments of other metals.	...do	17.50	11.80
c c 25	Forged iron and steel rails	....do	8.00	4.55
c c 26	Iron and steel sheets, from 6 millimeters inclusive, thickness and rivets.	....do	9.00	6.70
c c 27	Iron and steel, in bars of any shape, in sheets up to 6 millimeters thickness, the axles, axle-trees, plates, and springs for carriages and tires or hoops ("flejes").	....do	13.00	8.65
c c 28	Iron and steel in large pieces, composed of bars and plates, with rivets, for the construction of buildings, &c.	....do	16.90	11.25
29	Iron wire	....do	8.00	6.55
c 30	Iron wire in nails and screws, although they may have brass heads.	....do	20.00	14.85
c c 31	Iron pipes	....do	13.00	8.50
32	Iron in metallic cloth (rough)	....do	16.00	15.00
c 33	Iron in manufactures of all classes, not expressly tariffed, although they may have a coat of porcelain and a part of other metals and pipes covered with brass plate.	....do	24.00	19.84
c 34	Iron and steel in useless objects	....do	5.00	2.50

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS II—Continued.			
	GROUP 2—Continued.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
c e 35	Tin, in sheets	100 kilograms.	20.00	13.85
e 36	Tin, worked ("labrado")	....do	62.50	50.95
37	Needles, pens, pieces for watches, and other similar objects of iron or steel.	Kilogram	3.00	3.00
38	Knives, carving knives ("navajas"), and pen-knives, of iron or steel.	....do	1.00	1.00
39	Scissors, for sewing	....do	2.25	2.25
40	Swords ("armas blancas"), and pieces for the same	....do	2.05	2.05
b 41	Fire-arms and cannons, and other pieces for the same (13) NOTE.—In order that pieces of fire-arms may pay according to this article, they must be finished and polished on the outside.	....do	5.00	4.60
	GROUP 3.—Copper and its alloys:			
42	Copper of first fusion and the old copper	100 kilograms.	12.50	11.75
c 43	Copper and brass, in bars and ingots, and old brass	....do	22.50	18.60
c 44	Copper and brass, in sheets, and nails and copper wire	....do	50.00	33.15
c e 45	Copper and brass, in tubes, large pieces, partially worked, such as the outside of "braseros," &c., and bottoms of boilers.	....do	70.00	46.20
c 46	Brass wire	....do	30.00	20.60
c 47	Metallic cloth, of copper or brass, unworked	....do	60.00	41.25
48	Bronze, unworked	....do	10.00	9.30
e 49	Copper, bronze, or brass (worked), and all alloys of common metal, in which copper forms part, in pieces of hardware, although they may be varnished.	....do	125.00	86.68
e 50	Said metals and alloys in gilt, silvered, or nickeled objects.	....do	250.00	216.70
	GROUP 4.—The other metals:			
51	Tin, in ingots	....do	12.50	10.55
52	Zinc, in ingots, blocks, or cakes ("tortas")	....do	6.00	5.00
e 53	Zinc, in sheets, nails and wire	....do	15.00	13.65
e 54	Zinc, in manufactured objects, although they may be varnished.	... do	26.00	23.75
	Duty which must be applied to nations which have a commercial treaty, so long as the treaty with France shall subsist.	....do		23.69
* 55	All the other metals and alloys not expressed in sheets, blocks, nails, tubes, &c.	....do	1.60	1.60
56	The same worked up ("obrados"), whether varnished or not.	....do	37.50	16.60
57	The same metals, and zinc, in gilt, silvered or nickeled objects.	....do	45.00	45.00
	CLASS III.—*Substances employed in pharmacy, perfumery, and chemical industries.*			
	GROUP 1.—Simple drugs:			
58	Oil of coco and of palms	100 kilograms.	8.00	6.40
59	The other vegetable oils, except that of olive	....do	8.00	6.00
	Law of budgets of 1878-'79, extraordinary duty	....do	20.	20.00
* 60	Dyewoods and tannery bark	.. do	.25	0.20
e 61	Madder-root ("granza ó rubria")	....do	20.	18.35
62	Ben, flax, and other oleaginous seeds	....do	1.00	91
63	Other products of vegetal kingdom not expressed in other items.	....do	10.00	10.00
* 64	Products of the animal kingdom employed in medicines.	....do	3.00	3.00
	GROUP 2.—Colors, dyes, and varnishes:			
65	Ochers and natural earths for painting	....do	0.10	0.10
66	Indigo (14) and cochineal (14) NOTE.—In accordance with the provisions of article 26, of law of budgets of 1878-'79, indigo proceeding direct from foreign countries which are not European, shall pay 3 pesetas less on each 100 kilograms than the duty named in this tariff.	....do	45.00	21.00
67	Dyeing extracts	....do	7.80	5.75
e 68	Grancina and its mixture with ground madder	Kilogram	75	65
c 69	Varnishes	100 kilograms.	24.00	18.00
c 70	Colors, in powder or in lumps (15) NOTE.—The colors included in this item are those composed of a metallic base, which are used mixed with oil, turpentine, and which are generally indissoluble in water, alcohol, or ether, rarely crystallized,	....do	7.50	4.80

Tariff of the Peninsular and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS III.—Continued.			
	GROUP 2—Continued.			
	and almost always in powder or lumps, such as white lead, yellow ocher, vermilion, Prussian and Thénard blue, and English green.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
71	Colors, prepared, and (dyes) tints	100 kilograms.	25.60	24.00
c72	Colors derived from coal (hulls), and other artificial colors (16).	Kilogram	2.50	1.00
	(16) NOTE.—The colors included in this item are those called artificial, *i. e.*, organic products, in which mineral substances rarely enter; they are generally crystallized, dissoluble in water, alcohol, or ether, and employed in paints, dyeing, and stamping, with or without gold size, such as picric acid, "aldeida" green, English violet, rosaline, and its salts, naphtha, colors, &c.			
	GROUP 3.—Chemical and pharmaceutical products:			
73	Acid, muriatic or chloric	100 kilograms.	1.50	1.45
74	Acid, nitric	do	6.50	6.50
75	Acid, sulphuric	do	2.28	2.28
e76	Alkaloids, and their salts	Kilogram	30.00	27.50
77	Alum	100 kilograms.	1.50	1.15
78	Sulphur	do	1.25	65
79	Barilla, natural and artificial	100 kilograms.	1.00	80
	(17) NOTE.—Barilla, natural and artificial, are understood to be carbonates of impure soda which contain carbon.			
80	Alkaline carbonates, caustic alkalies, and ammoniacal salts.	do	3.80	2.90
81	Chloride of lime	do	2.60	2.00
82	Chloride of potassium, sulphate of soda, chloride, carbonate, and sulphate of magnesia.	do	50	50
e83	Chloride of sodium (common salt)	do	3.25	54
84	Glues and albumine	do	12.00	12.00
85	Phosphorus	Kilogram	70	60
86	Nitrate of potass (saltpeter)	100 kilograms.	3.75	3.70
87	Nitrate of soda	do	1.00	66
88	Oxide of lead	do	5.00	4.60
89	Sulphate and pyrolignite of iron	do	1.50	1.50
90	Pills, capsules, and the like (18)	Kilogram	2.00	1.85
	(18) NOTE.—The products or substances included in this item shall be examined by the pharmaceutical inspectors, who will sign the declarations with the customs officer sin the following form: The goods cleared are those expressed in the declaration and are (or are not) admitted to importation by virtue of their formula having been published (state where), or their composition having been discovered through analysis made by.			
e91	Pharmaceutical products not specified (see Note 18)	do	1.00	90
92	Chemical products not specified	do	10	10
	GROUP 4.—Various:			
e93	Starch	100 kilograms.	10.00	9.15
94	Fæcula, for industrial uses, dextrine and glucose	do	2.00	2.00
e95	Soap, common	do	18.75	15.80
c96	Paraffine, stearine, wax, and whale sperm, in the lump	do	25.00	21.00
c e97	Paraffine, stearine, wax, and whale sperm, in the lump, manufactured.	do	50.00	33.90
e98	Perfumery and essences	Kilogram	2.00	1.73
e99	Gunpowder, explosive mixtures and fuses, "mechas," for mines.	do	47	47
	CLASS IV.—*Cotton, and its manufactures.*			
	GROUP 1.—Raw cotton:			
*100	Raw cotton, with or without seed (kepita) (19)	100 kilograms.	1.50	1.20
	(19) NOTE.—In accordance with the provisions of article 25 of the law of budgets of 1878–'79, raw cotton coming direct from foreign countries, not European, shall pay 1 peseta less on each 100 kilograms than the duty named in this tariff.			
	GROUP 2.—Spun cotton ("hilados"):			
e101	Cotton, spun and twisted in one or two threads, white or colored, up to No. 35 inclusive (20).	Kilogram	1.25	76
	Cotton from No. 36 and upwards	do	1.75	1.00
	(20) NOTE.—In order to ascertain the number according to the English system (the system adopted in this tariff) to which a piece of cotton belongs, any one num-			

Tariff of the Peninsular and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	Class IV.—Continued.			
	Group 2—Continued.			
	ber of meters of cotton may be taken, which number will be multiplied by the invariable factor 59 (this being the number of centigrams which a meter of cloth of one thread No. 1 will weigh). The product will then be divided by the number of centigrams which the meters of cotton may weigh; the quotient, multiplied by the number of threads it may contain, will give the corresponding English number, to which 7 per cent. will be added if the cotton of more than one thread is only twisted, and 10 per cent if twisted and colored.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
c e 102	Cotton from No. 36 and upwards, (see Note 20).	Kilogram	1.75	1.00
e e 103	Cotton twisted in three or more threads, raw, white, or colored.	do	2.50	1.75
	Group 3.—Woven textiles:			
c e 104	Textiles closely woven, raw, white, or dyed, in pieces, or shawls, up to 25 threads, inclusive (21).	do	3.00	1.54
	(21) Note.—The number of threads will be determined by half of the total of threads contained in a square of 6 millimeters in the warp and weft of the cloth, the counting to be done with the instrument called "thread-counter."			
c e 105	Textiles from 26 threads and upwards (see Note 21).	do	2.70	1.74
c e 106	Textiles, printed, and those crossed and worked in the loom up to 25 threads, inclusive (see Note 21).	do	4.00	2.40
c e 107	Textiles from 26 threads and upwards (21), (see Note 21).	do	3.70	2.49
c e 108	Textiles, transparent, such as muslins, cambrics, lawns, organdies, and gauze of any class.	do	3.00	2.24
c e 109	("Acolchados y piqués), quiltings piqué	do	4.50	2.10
c e 110	("Panas veludillos"), corduroys, velveteens, and other double textures, for wearing apparel.	do	3.50	2.49
e 111	Tulles	do	5.00	4.18
e 112	Lace, of any class, except that of crochet ("puntillá").	do	6.25	5.40
e 113	Knitted fabrics of crochet, made by hand or in the loom.	do	3.00	2.35
c e 114	Knitted fabrics, in a piece (singlers), undershirt and drawers.	do	2.62	1.97
c e 115	Knitted fabrics, in stockings, socks, gloves, and other objects.	do	5.25	2.54
	Class V.—*Hemp, flax, aloe ("pita"), jute, and other vegetable fibers, and their manufactures.*			
	Group 1.—"Raw en rama":			
116	Hemp, raw and hackled	100 kilograms	10.00	9.80
117	Flax, raw and hackled	do	2.70	2.70
118	Jute ("abaca"), aloe, and other vegetable fibers	do	1.05	1.05
	Group 2.—Spun:			
119	Hemp and flax spun into threads	do	27.50	27.20
120	Aloe, abaca, jute, and other vegetable fibers spun into threads.	do	7.80	7.75
c e 121	Threads, twisted, of two or more threads	do	122.50	111.80
e 122	Rope and cordage "jarcia y cordeleria" (22)	do	20.80	18.90
	(22) Note.—Threads of flax, hemp, or jute, twisted of two or more threads, 10 metres of which weigh more than 5 grams, will be considered as pack-thread and will pay according to this item.			
	Group 3.—Woven textiles (23):			
	(23) Note.—Textures of flax which must pay according to the number of threads, only those of the warp in the space of 6 millimeters will be counted.			
c e 123	Textiles of hemp or flax, with or without mixtures of cotton, up to 10 threads, inclusive.	Kilogram	1.25	87
c e 124	Same, from 11 to 24 threads, inclusive	do	2.50	2.15
c e 125	Same, from 25 threads upwards	do	4.25	3.85
c e 126	Same, crossed or worked up	do	2.00	1.83
127	Lace ("encages")	do	12.50	12.50
e 128	Hosiery (tejidos de punto)	do	5.00	4.58
e 129	Textiles, plain, of jute, abaca, aloe, or other vegetal fibers, whether mixed or not with cotton.	do	45	45
	Duty which must be applied to nations having treaty of commerce so long as the treaty with France may remain in force.	do	45	25

Tariff of the Peninsular and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of articles.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS V.—Continued.			
	GROUP 3—Continued.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
c 130	Textiles, crossed or worked up, of the same materials, whether mixed or not with cotton.	Kilogram.....	90	90
	CLASS VI.—*Wools, bristles, horsehair, and their manufactures.*			
	GROUP 1—RAW:			
131	Bristles, horsehair, and hair.....	100 kilograms	2.00	2.00
132	Wool, common, unclean (24).....	....do.....	28.00	24.30
	(24) NOTE. Wool which, after being washed with sulphate of carbon, loses more than 10 per cent. of its weight, will be considered as unclean wool.			
133	Wool, common, washed.....	....do.....	56.00	48.60
134	Wool, common, unclean, of other classes, and long wool for worsteds (25).	....do.....	12.50	7.60
	(25) NOTE.—Wool more than 10 centimeters long shall be considered as long wool.			
135	Wool, common, clean.....	....do.....	25.00	15.20
136	Wool, combed or carded, and waste from carding.....	....do.....	33.25	33.25
	GROUP 2.—Spun ("hilados"):			
137	Worsted, spun and twisted, crude, or with oil.....	Kilogram.....	1.85	1.10
138	Same, clean or bleached.....	....do.....	2.60	1.65
139	Worsted, dyed.....	....do.....	3.00	1.95
	GROUP 3.—Woven:			
c e 140	Carpetings, of pure wool, or mixed with other materials.	100 kilograms.	139.55	99.70
e 141	Feltings mixed with other materials.....	Kilogram.....	75	60
c e 142	Blanketings mixed with other materials (26).....	....do.....	2.25	1.78
	(26) NOTE.—Blankets called "plaids," or similar thereto, which pay according to the class of the textile of which they may be composed, are not included in this item.			
c e 143	Hosiery ("cejidos de punto"), whether mixed or not with cotton or other vegetal fibers.	....do.....	4.00	3.47
c e 144	Cloths, and all other fabrics of the cloth line, of pure wool, flock wool, hair, or mixed with these materials.	....do.....	8.00	4.83
	Duties which must be applied to nations having treaties of commerce so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do.....	8.00	4.30
c e 145	The same cloths, when they have all the warp of cotton or other vegetal fibers, and the astrakans and plush of the same materials.	....do.....	8.00	2.60
c e 146	All the other textiles of pure wool, flock wool, hair, or mixtures of these materials.	....do.....	5.00	3.68
	Duty to be applied to nations having treaties of commerce so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do.....	5.00	3.50
c e 147	The same textiles, when all the warp is of cotton or of other vegetal fibers.	....do.....	5.00	2.17
148	Fabrics of bristles or horsehair, whether mixed or not with other vegetal fibers.	Kilogram.....	2.50	2.00
	CLASS VII.			
	GROUP 1.—Spun:			
149	Silk, raw and spun but not twisted.....	Kilogram.....	1.50	0.70
c 150	Silk, twisted.....	....do.....	6.25	3.80
*151	Silk, waste ("borra de seda"), combed or carded.....	....do.....	0.15	0.15
152	Same, spun but not twisted.....	....do.....	0.50	0.30
c 153	Same, twisted.....	....do.....	4.50	1.85
	GROUP 2.—Woven:			
c 154	Silk, plain or striped.....	Kilogram.....	17.50	14.40
	Duty to be applied to nations having treaties of commerce so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do.....	.....	10.00
c 155	Velvets and plushes.....	....do.....	26.25	21.90
	Duty to be applied to nations having treaties of commerce so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do.....	.....	12.00
c 156	Velveteens ("tejidos de filosedo") and those of floss, crude or mixed with silk.	....do.....	9.00	6.90
	Duty to be applied to nations having treaty of commerce so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do.....	.....	5.00

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duty for the nations.	
			Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS VII—Continued.			
	GROUP 2—Continued:		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
c157	Tulles, laces, edgings of silk, or floss silk	Kilogram	22.50	20.40
	Duty to be applied to nations having treaty of commerce so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do		7.00
cs158	Silk textiles or floss silk	....do	15.00	13.30
	Duty to be applied to nations having treaty of commerce while the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do		10.00
c159	Velvets and plushes of silk or floss silk with the whole warp or weft of cotton or other vegetal fibers.	....do	12.60	8.00
c160	Other textiles of silk or floss silk with all the warp or weft of cotton or other vegetal fibers.	....do	6.70	4.00
c161	Textiles of silk or floss silk with all the warp or weft of wool or hair.	....do	7.50	5.00
	CLASS VIII.—*Paper and its applications.*			
	GROUP 1.—Printing and writing paper:			
162	Paper, unsized and half sized, for printing	100 kilograms.	10.50	10.50
	Duty to be applied to nations having treaty of commerce so long as the treaty with Belgium shall remain in force.	....do		10.50
c163	Paper, unsigned, for writing, lithographing, or stamping.	....do	30.00	27.50
c164	Paper, cut, made by hand, and ruled	....do	56.25	48.75
	GROUP 2.—Printed paper, engraved or photographed:			
c165	Books, bound or unbound, and others printed in Spanish (27) (28).	....do	42.00	38.50
	(27) NOTE.—The bindings of books shall be appraised according to the item corresponding to their material. When the books are bound in rustic, or with pasteboard wrappers, they shall pay as printed matter on their total weight.			
	(28) NOTE.—The authors or editors of works printed abroad in Spanish language are the only ones who, through the payment of duties, may import them into Spain fifteen days after the publication in the Gazette, by the ministry of Fomento, of a bibliography of said works. This publication once made, authorizes all subsequent publications. Newspapers published abroad in the Spanish language do not require permission to introduce them into Spain.			
166	Books and other publications in a foreign language. (See Note 27.)	....do	10.00	10.00
167	Engravings, maps, and plans	Kilogram	1.25	1.25
	GROUP 3.—Decorating paper:			
cs168	Paper, stamped with gold, silver, wool, or crystal	100 kilograms.	200.00	130.00
cs169	Paper of other kinds	....do	27.50	23.84
	GROUP 4.—Cardboard and various papers:			
c170	Paper, brown, ordinary, for packing, &c	100 kilograms.	12.50	10.85
171	Paper, other paper, not expressly tariffed	....do	40.00	35.00
c172	Cardboard in sheets and boxes lined with ordinary paper, and objects of cardboard, &c., not finished (29),	....do	8.00	6.95
	(29) NOTE.—Boxes of pasteboard lined with paper more or less ordinary, which serve for packing of handkerchiefs, shirt-bosoms, buttons, fabrics in pieces, and other similar articles will pay according to this item.			
c173	Said objects finished and cardboard boxes ornamented or lined with fine paper or other materials.	Kilogram	1.50	1.35
	CLASS IX.—*Woods, and other vegetable materials employed in industry, and its manufactures.*			
	GROUP 1.—Woods:			
174	Staves	1,000 kilograms	15.00	15.00
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty, so long as the treaty with Austria-Hungary shall remain in force.	....do		10.00
175	Wood, ordinary in boards, although they may be cut, planed, grooved, and tongued, for boxes or floors, planks, beams, rafters, masts, and wood for ship-building.	Cubic meter	2.75	2.00

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duty for the nations.	
			Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS IX.—Continued.			
	GROUP 1—Continued:		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as the treaty with Austria-Hungary shall remain in force.	Cubic meter ..	.....	2.00
	Wood:			
*176	Fine, for cabinet ware, in boards, planks, in logs or pieces.	100 kilograms.	0.55	0.55
177	Fine, serrated or in planks	... do	4.48	4.48
c178	Cooper's ware, fitted or unfitted	....do	10.00	9.15
	GROUP 2.—Furniture, &c. (30):			
	(30) NOTE.—The marble slabs of furniture shall be appraised by the second column of the tariff, provided they are presented separate from the objects to which they belong.			
	Wood:			
c179	Ordinary, manufactured into any kind of objects, turned or not turned, painted and varnished, and the battens molded and varnished or prepared for gilding, and wooden carved furniture, although they may be painted or varnished.	100 kilograms.	20.00	18.75
180	Fine, manufactured into furniture or other objects, turned, polished, carved, and varnished; those of ordinary wood inlaid with fine woods; those tapestried, except with silk or leather textiles and corners gilt.	....do	36.00	33.75
c181	In the same objects gilt, edged with mother of pearl or other fine materials and metal moldings, and those tapestried with silk or leather.	....do	112.00	102.65
	GROUP 3.—Various:			
*182	Coal, wood, and other vegetable combustibles ..	Ton of 1,000 kilograms.	0.50	0.50
183	Cork	100 kilograms	0.90	0.90
*184	Wooden hoops, twigs, and railings	... do	1.25	1.25
185	Rushes, esparto, vegetable hair, soft rushes, twigs, fine straw, palm and other analogous materials, unmanufactured.	....do	0.25	0.20
c186	The same materials, manufactured	....do	30.24	30.24
	CLASS X.—*Animals and their remnants employed in industry.*			
	GROUP 1.—Animals:			
c187	Horses (gelding) above the standard height	Each	128.30	128.30
188	Other horses and mares	....do	31.50	31.50
189	Mules	....do	19.60	19.60
190	Asses	....do	8.40	8.40
191	Cows, bulls, and calves	....do	13.80	13.80
192	Pigs	....do	8.45	8.45
193	Sheep and goats and animals not included	....do	1.40	1.40
	GROUP 2.—Furriers' and leather-dealers' wares:			
194	Skins and hides, untanned (31)	100 kilograms.	12.60	10.15
	(31) NOTE.—In accordance with the provisions of Article 25 of the law of budgets of 1878-'79, skins and hides untanned coming direct from foreign countries not European shall pay 3 pesetas less on each 100 kilos than the duty assigned in this tariff.			
c c195	Leather, enameled, and calfskin, tanned, &c	Kilogram	5.00	3.25
	Duty to be applied to nations so long as the treaty with Belgium and France are in force.	....do	.....	2.50
c c196	Leather, other, including sole leather	....do	2.00	1.85
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as treaty with France and Belgium are in force.	... do	.....	1.25
197	Belt leather for machinery	....do	1.00	1.00
*198	Furs for caps and coats or for ornament, in natural or dressed state.	....do	0.64	0.50
c199	Furs in made-up objects	....do	9.00	8.25
c c200	Kid and leather gloves	....do	32.00	18.33
c c201	Shoe leather	....do	8.75	5.65
c202	Harness and belt ware (32)	... do	3.75	2.15
c203	Other articles of leather, or lined with same	....do	5.00	4.58
	(32) NOTE.—Saddles, bridles, reins, horse gear of all classes, and traveling objects—such as bags, portmanteaus, trunks, hat-boxes, and other articles composed of leather or skin—will be considered as articles of harness and belt ware.			

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duty for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS X—Continued.			
	GROUP 3.—Feathers:		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
e 204	Feathers for ornament in natural and manufactured state.	Kilogram	10.00	9.15
e 205	Feathers—other feathers and those for dusting ("plumeros").	....do	2.00	1.85
	GROUP 4.—Other animal remains ("despojos"):			
206	Animal fats and greases	100 kilograms.	1.90	1.70
*207	Guano and other manures.....	....do	0.05	0.04
208	Entrails	....do	21.90	21.90
*209	Other animal remains not enumetated and not manufactured.	....do	0.50	0.50
	CLASS XI.—*Instruments, machinery, and apparatus employed in agriculture, industry, and traveling.*			
	GROUP 1.—Instruments:			
ce 210	Pianos (33)	Each.....	250.00	174.14
	(33) NOTE.—Cases, including cords for pianos, shall pay the duties of the article to which they may b. long, even when not accompanied by the other pieces which are necessary to constitute the musical instrument properly so called.			
211	Harmoniums and organs	....do	20.00	20.00
	Watches:			
212	Gold	... do	7.50	7.50
213	Silver and other metals	....do	2.00	1.80
e 214	Clocks with weights and alarm clocks.....	....do	1.20	1.10
e 215	Works for wall clocks or mantlepiece clocks not finished, with or without case and chronometers (34).	.....	5.60	4.70
	(34) NOTE.—Cases, pedestals, dials, and other accessories, shall pay duty as manufactured objects, according to the article to which the material belongs. Machinery for wall or table clock, (in "desbaste") and pieces of brass for the same, shall pay according to item No. 49. The pieces (in "desbaste") are distinguishable by their being only roughly finished, by the want of escapements, by the minute hands not being adjusted, and by the last wheel being without cog. In cases where watch machinery shall come in pedestals, &c., and the importer should not wish to separate them for examination, one kilogram will be taken as the weight of the machinery, including the dial, and the remainder shall pay as indicated in the previous paragraphs.			
	GROUP 2.—Apparatus and machines:			
ce 216	Weighing machines.....	100 kilograms.	27.50	22.95
217	Agricultural machines (35)	....do	1.00	0.85
	(35) NOTE.—The machines here referred to are those employed by the field laborer or agriculturist, for preparing the land and gathering the fruits, and also those used to clean or improve the same without essentially varying its natural form. Landlords and tenants who are enjoying the benefits of the law of 3d of June, 1868, in the introduction of all classes of instruments ("aperos") or agricultural machines, the duty on which as assigned in the tariff is higher than that of Article No. 277, shall pay the duties of the same article (277), provided they shall justify by a certificate of the mayor of the locality that the articles are destined to be employed in establishments which enjoy the privilege of the said law.			
218	Motive machine.....	100 kilograms.	2.50	2.40
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as the treaty with Belgium shall remain in force.	....do	.....	2.00
219	Machines of copper and their alloys and their pieces of the same metals (36).	....do	27.00	24.00
	(36) NOTE.—The machines and separate pieces of copper and their alloys with parts of other materials shall also pay duty as per this article, provided said metal shall exceed them in weight.			
220	Machines and separate pieces of material for industry (37).	....do	9.00	8.00
	(37) NOTE.—In order that the bags ("mangas") and filters of wool employed in manufacture may be assessed			

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duty for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS XI—Continued.			
	GROUP 2—Continued. by this article, a certificate stating the industry or factory to which they are destined will be required. For the classification of pieces of machinery the following rules shall be taken into account: 1st. A separate piece of machinery is understood to be any object not expresaly included by name in any article of the tariff, which by its form and by the conditions in which it is presented for clearance in the customs (although it may not be entirely finished), is exclusively destined to, and may only be applied to forming part of a machine (in case it should arrive finished) should be assessed according to one of the articles of machinery of the tariff. 2d. The importer of a separate piece for machinery, if he deem it expedient, may have the option, on producing for clearance, to have it assessed according to the article corresponding to the material of which said piece is composed, instead of being assessed according to one of the articles of machinery. 3d. Pipes, bars, axles, screws, plates, sheets, boilers, bottoms, wire, and other articles expressly provided for in the tariff, must always be assessed according to the articles of the same in which they are limitedly included, although they come destined for machinery. 4th. The implements, tools, and utensils employed in arts and industries must not be considered as separate pieces of machinery so far as the customs tariff is concerned, and they must pay the duties of the articles corresponding to the materials of which they are com-posed.			
	GROUP 3.—Carriages:		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
c 221	Coaches and berlins, 4 seats, &c., new, used, or repaired.	Each.....	1,000.00	801.80
c c 222	Berlins of 2 seats, &c., omnibus of more than 15 seats, and diligences new, used, or repaired.	...do	750.00	606.75
c c 223	Carriages of 2 or 4 wheels, &c., regardless of the number of seats, omnibusses up to 15 seats and carriages not expressed in the previous classes, new, used, or repaired.	....do	312.50	270.90
c 224	Railway and tramway carriages, and the pieces of wood finished for the same.	100 kilograms .	37.90	37.90
c 225	Other vehicles for railways, and pieces of wood finished for the same.	....do	10.85	10.85
c 226	Carts and hand carts.....	....do	10.00	8.65
	GROUP 4.—Navigation (38), (39): (38) NOTE.—The duties on navigation are fixed by the law of June 25, 1880. Anchors, grappels, cables, chains, barometers, chronometers, binnacles, temporary or stationary telescopes, cooperage (piperia), rigging tackle, cordage (jarcia), sails, masts, yards, booms, &c., necessary for the maneuvers and safety of the vessel, according to her class, are comprised in the duties named in articles No. 227 to 230; the spare stock of the last three articles in proportion to the requirements of navigation will also be admitted free whatever other duty. Carpetings, glass, earthenware, lamps, and every kind of effects ("enseres"), furniture, and other articles of commodity or luxury exclusively destined to cabin service, to private use, and to the defense of the vessel, and in quantities in proportion to the destination of the same, will also be comprised in the duties named in the article of the above-mentioned tariff. When the objects referred to in this note do not meet the requirements indicated, they shall pay the duties fixed in the respective articles of the tariff. (39) NOTE.—Duties on steam vessels shall be levied on the total number of tons which may result from measurement, and no separate duty shall be levied on machinery which shall be considered as an integral part of the vessel. As a basis for the assessment of ships introduced from abroad, the copy of the certificate of measurement (arqueo) may be used provisionally, which, in accordance with article 28 of the regulation of the 2d December, 1874, and the royal order of 12th January, 1876, has to be delivered to the collector of customs, with the visé of the respective captain of the port.			

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duty for the nations.	
			Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS XI.—Continued.			
	GROUP 4—Continued.			
	The parties interested must present to the customs a certificate of the captain of the port showing that the certificate of measurement has been approved by the inspector, in accordance with articles 29 and 32 of said regulations; and it is to be understood that the customs will not consider the clearance and payment of the corresponding duties as finally settled until this formality has been complied with; this will be stated in the respective declaration or document. National ships which have been lengthened (or whose tonnage has been increased) in foreign dock-yards must, on their return, pay duty on the increased tonnage. Ships repaired abroad must, on their return to a port in Spain, pay duty on the materials employed for the purpose.			
	Ships:		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
c 227	Wooden, &c., up to 50 tons measurement	Ton of measurement.	40.00	40.00
228	Wooden, &c., from 51 to 301 tons measurement	....do.	26.00	26.00
229	Wooden, from 301 tons upward	....do	14.00	14.00
230	Iron and steel boats, &c., and those of a mixed construction of any tonnage.	....do	12.50	12.50
	CLASS XII.—*Alimentary substances.*			
	GROUP 1.—Meat and fish:			
c 231	Live and dead birds and game	Kilogram	0.31	0.25
232	Meat, salt and jerked	100 kilograms	2.80	2.80
233	Pork meat and lard, pork (salted) included	....do	15.00	15.00
234	Meat of other classes	....do	5.70	5.70
c 235	Butter	....do	56.00	52.50
c c 236	Codfish and stock fish ("pez palo")	....do	17.50	12.70
	Law of July 21, 1876, transitory duty	....do	3.00	3.00
	Law of July 21, 1877, municipal charge	....do	3.00	3.00
237	Fresh fish or fish with the salt indispensable for its preservation.	....do	1.50	1.50
c 238	Fish, salted, smoked, and pickled	....do	12.00	11.00
239	Shell fish ("mariscos")	....do	3.00	3.00
	GROUP 2.—Grain and vegetables:			
	Rice:			
c c 240	In hull	100 kilograms	4.00	3.40
c c 241	Without hull	....do	8.00	6.80
242	Wheat	....do	4.32	4.20
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	....do	1.50	1.50
243	Wheat flour	....do	6.48	6.00
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	....do	2.25	2.25
244	Cereals, other	....do	3.20	3.20
245	Flour of same	....do	4.80	4.50
246	Vegetables, dried	....do	3.20	3.10
	GROUP 3.—Garden stuffs and fruits:			
247	Garden stuff	100 kilograms	1.25	1.20
248	Fruits	....do	2.50	2.50
	GROUP 4.—Colonials:			
c c 249	Sugar	100 kilograms	32.25	25.25
	Law of budgets of 1878-'79, transitory duty	... do	13.50	13.50
	Law of budgets 1878-'79, municipal tax	....do	13.50	13.50
c 250	Cocoa (Caracas) and its kinds (40)	....do	91.00	66.85
	(40) NOTE.—In accordance with the provisions of the law of budgets of 1878-'79, cacao coming direct from foreign places other than European will pay three pesetas less than the duty assessed in this tariff.			
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	100 kilograms	16.00	16.00
	Law of budgets 1877-'78, municipal charge	....do	16.00	16.00
c 251	Cocoa—Guayaquil and its kinds (40)	... do	56.00	48.75
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	....do	16.00	16.00
	Law of budgets 1877-'78, municipal charge	... do	16.00	16.00
c 252	Coffee	....do	50.00	44.00
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	... do	27.00	27.00
	Law of budgets 1878-'79, municipal tax	....do	27.00	27.00
c 253	Ceylon cinnamon and its like	....do	125.00	88.15
	Law of budgets of 1876-'77, transitory duty	....do	80.80	80.80
	Law of budgets 1877-'78, municipal tax	....do	80.80	80.80
c 254	Cinnamon of other classes	....do	60.00	23.85

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duty for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	Class XII—Continued.			
	Group 4—Continued.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	100 kilograms.	22.40	22.40
	Law of budgets 1877-'78, municipal tax	... do	22.40	22.40
e 255	Cloves	.. do	70.00	53.15
	Law of budgets of 1876-'77, transitory duty	....do	22.40	22.40
e 256	Pepper	....do	31.00	22.75
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	....do	22.40	22.40
	Law of budgets 1877-'78, municipal tax	....do	22.40	22.40
e 257	Tea	Kilogram	1.50	0.69
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	....do	0.80	0.80
	Law of budgets 1877-'78, municipal tax	....do	0.80	0.80
	Group 5.—Oils and drinks:			
e 258	Olive oil	100 kilograms.	30.60	26.00
c e 259	Brandy ("Aguardiente")	Hectoliter	20.00	17.35
	Law of budgets 1876-'77, transitory duty	... do	3.75	3.75
c e 260	Liquors	Liter	1.00	0.76
e 261	Beer and cider	Hectoliter	12.50	9.75
e 262	Wines, sparkling	....do	150.00	75.85
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	....do		5.00
e 263	Wines of other classes	....do	50.00	21.67
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as the treaty shall remain in force.	....do		2.00
	Group 6.—Forages and seeds:			
264	Seeds not expressed, and tares	100 kilograms.	1.60	1.50
265	Forages, and bran	....do	0.50	0.45
	Group 7.—Various:			
266	Preserves, sausage-meats, mustard, and sauces	Kilogram	1.00	0.90
e 267	Chocolate	.. do	1.00	0.65
e 268	Sweetmeats	....do	1.00	0.85
269	Eggs	100 kilograms.	5.00	5.00
e 270	Macaroni, vermicelli, for soup, alimentary substances, bread, and biscuits.	....do	14.00	11.35
e 271	Cheese	Kilogram	0.36	0.35
272	Honey (41)	100 kilograms.	5.60	5.25
	(41) Note.—By this article will be appraised honey and molasses, which is the glutinous residuum of a brownish red, more or less dark, of a sweetish taste, but a little sour, the remainder of the crystallization of sugar; weight from 1,374 to 1,427 grams the liter, and marks from 40° to 41° at 15 centigrades, Beaumé.			
	Class XIII.—*Various.*			
273	Finery and ornaments of all classes, except of gold or silver	Kilogram	10.00	9.17
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as the treaty shall remain in force	....do		6.00
274	Amber, horn, jet, whalebone, tortoise shell, coral, meerschaum, ivory, mother-of-pearl, and paste, in the rough or cut, although in strips or plates	....do	0.05	0.05
275	Amber, jet, tortoise shell, coral, ivory, and mother-of-pearl, worked up	....do	12.50	6.85
276	Horn, whalebone, meerschaum, bone, and paste in imitation of the materials expressed in the preceding article, worked up	....do	2.50	2.50
277	Canes and sticks for umbrellas and parasols (42)	per hundred	25.00	15.00
	(42) Note.—Sword canes shall pay the duties fixed for fencing blades as well as those fixed for canes without blade.			
e 278	Buttons of all classes, except those of gold or silver	Kilogram	2.00	0.95
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force	....do		0.50
ce 279	Cartridges without projectiles or ball for permitted fire-arms	100 kilograms.	75.00	45.85
ce 280	Cartridges with projectile or ball for permitted fire-arms	....do	60.00	22.90
ce 281	Caps (percussion) or capsules for permitted fire-arms	....do	175.00	146.65
e 282	Boxes (fancy) of fine wood, leather, those lined with silk, and other ones of the kind, with or without fittings, for writing, sewing, toilet, perfumery, cordials, and viands	Kilogram	6.00	5.50

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of articles.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations. Without treaty.	With treaty.
	CLASS XIII.—Continued.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
e 283	Cases of ordinary wood, card-board, wickers, and the like, with or without fittings for same use	Kilogram	3.00	2.75
284	India rubber and gutta-percha unmanufactured	100 kilograms.	5.10	5.10
285	India rubber and gutta-percha in sheets, threads, and pipes	do	0.75	0.75
286	India rubber and gutta-percha manufactured in any form and objects	Kilogram	1.85	1.50
e 287	Oil-cloths, oil-skins, tarpaulin, &c., for floors and for wrapping	100 kilograms.	32.50	21.65
e 288	Oil-cloths—oil-skins, tarpaulin, &c., of the other classes.	Kilogram	1.00	0.65
e 289	Games and toys, except those of tortoise shell, ivory, mother-of-pearl, gold or silver.	do	1.50	1.30
e 290	Wicks for lamps and candles	do	1.64	0.73
291	Umbrellas and parasols lined with textures of silk	Each	2.50	2.30
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty so long as the treaty with France shall subsist.	do		1.25
292	Umbrellas and parasols lined with other textures	do	1.50	1.25
	Duty to be applied to nations with treaty, so long as the treaty with France shall remain in force.	Kilogram		0.75
293	Ornaments of silk (43)	do	12.50	7.50
	(43) NOTE.—Ornaments of silk containing more than 40 per cent. of its total weight of said material shall be assessed as silk goods.			
e 294	Ornaments of wool (44)	Kilogram	4.50	2.50
	(44) NOTE.—Ornaments containing more than 40 per cent. of its total weight of wool, or of wool and silk, shall be assessed as woolen goods.			
e 295	Ornaments—all other classes	do	4.50	2.00
e 296	Oil paintings	Each	1.00	0.90
e 297	Hats and caps of straw	Kilogram	15.00	12.50
e 298	Hats trimmed (45) and made up of other material	Each	2.00	1.83
	(45) NOTE.—In the clearance of felt hats, those having more work done by hand than is indispensable to give it shape, shall be considered trimmed and made up.			
e 299	Hats and caps, untrimmed	do	1.00	0.92
300	Hats and caps, of all classes and material—millinery.	Kilogram	7.50	6.87
	Elastic—fabrics with mixture of other materials	do	3.00	2.75
	TARIFF OF EXPORTATION.			
1	Cork, in the rough, from the province of Gerona	100 kilograms.	5.00	4.90
2	Old rags, of linen, cotton, or hemp, and used effects of the same materials.	do	4.00	4.00
3	Sulphurets of lead ("galenas") (47)		1.25	1.25
	(46) NOTE.—Shall be understood as silver lead and litharges those containing more than 30 grams of silver per each 100 kilograms of lead.			
	(47) NOTE.—For the clearance of these minerals and metals, and to justify their importation to countries having a treaty of commerce, the rules in force regarding the matter shall be enforced so long as the treaty of commerce with France shall remain in force, when they are exported to nations with treaty.	100 kilograms.	1.25	Free.
4	Argentiferous leads (see notes 46-47)	do	1.00	0.98
	So long as the commercial treaty with France is in force, when exported to countries with treaty.	do		Free.
5	Argentiferous litharges (see notes 46 and 47)	do	1.50	1.45
	So long as the commercial treaty with France is in force, when exported to countries having commercial treaty.	do		Free.
	All other articles		Free	Free.

The vice-president of the board of tariffs and valuations:

SALVADOR DE ALBACETE.

MADRID, *July* 23, 1882.

His Majesty the King has been pleased to approve these tariffs.
The minister of finances:

JUAN FRANCISCO CAMACHO.

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of articles.	Articles.	Unit.	Duty for the nations.	
			Without treaty.	With treaty.
	TARIFF No. 1.—*For the payment in specie of duties corresponding to the material cleared by railway companies comprehended in article 34 of the budget of law for 1877–'78.*			
	ARTICLES.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
1	Rails of iron and steel	100 kilograms.	2.30	1.80
2	Fish-plates (placas de union)	do	2.20	1.80
3	Screws, tenter-hooks, &c	do	3.08	2.75
4	Iron crossings, points, &c	do	2.00	1.75
5	Shunts of iron and steel and loose pieces for the same	do	4.50	3.95
6	Tires of iron and steel for locomotives and tenders	do	3.16	2.85
7	Iron and steel wheels for locomotives and tenders, with the exception of tires and axles.	do	2.15	2.15
8	Iron and steel tires for carriages and wagons	do	2.55	2.55
9	Iron and steel wheels for the same, with the exception of the tires and axles.	do	1.50	1.50
10	Axles of iron and steel for locomotives and tenders	do	4.75	4.75
11	Same for carriages and wagons	do	2.95	2.95
12	Cushions of cast iron	do	1.60	1.60
13	Springs of steel for locomotives, tenders, coaches, and wagons.	do	4.50	4.50
14	Iron frames for trucks	do	5.50	5.45
15	Iron buffers for coaches and wagons	do	5.00	4.65
16	Ties of iron for the same	do	3.80	3.75
17	Pieces of iron for bridges	do	3.00	3.00
18	Iron turntables (platforms)	do	3.30	3.30
19	Carriages, first class, for travelers (1)	do	13.00	13.00
	(1) NOTE.—Mixed carriages shall pay according to the articles corresponding to the superior class.			
20	Carriages, second class, for travelers (see note 1)	100 kilograms	10.00	10.00
21	Carriages, third class, for travelers (see note 1)	do	8.00	8.00
22	Wagons of all classes	do	5.00	5.00
23	Copper tubes	do	27.50	27.25
24	Spiral springs of steel	do	9.60	5.75
	TARIFF No. 2.—*For payment in specie of duties corresponding to material cleared by railway companies comprehended in article 19 of the law of budgets for 1876–'77.*			
	ARTICLES.			
1	Rails of iron and steel	100 kilograms.	1.15	0.90
2	Fish-plates	do	1.10	0.90
3	Screws, tenter-hooks, &c	do	1.54	1.35
4	Iron crossings, points, &c	do	1.00	0.85
5	Shunts of iron and steel complete, and loose pieces for the same.	do	2.25	1.95
6	Tires of iron and steel for locomotives and tenders	do	1.60	1.45
7	Iron and steel wheels, with the exception of the tires and axles.	do	1.10	1.10
8	Iron and steel tires for carriages and wagons	do	1.30	1.30
9	Iron and steel wheels for carriages and wagons, with the exception of the tires and axles.	do	0.75	0.75
10	Iron and steel axles for locomotives and tenders	do	2.35	2.35
11	Same for carriages and wagons	do	1.50	1.50
12	Cushions of cast iron	do	0.80	0.80
13	Springs of steel for locomotives, tenders, carriages, and wagons.	do	2.25	2.25
14	Iron frames for wagons	do	2.75	2.70
15	Iron buffers for carriages and wagons	do	2.50	2.35
16	Ties of iron for the same	do	1.90	1.85
17	Pieces of iron for bridges	do	1.50	1.50
18	Turntables of iron platforms	do	1.65	1.65
19	Carriages, traveling, first class	do	6.50	6.50
	(1) NOTE.—Mixed carriages will pay according to the article corresponding to the superior class.			
20	Carriages, traveling, second class (see note 1)	100 kilograms.	5.00	5.00
21	Carriages, traveling, third class (see note 1)	do	4.00	4.00
22	Wagons of all classes	do	2.50	2.58
23	Copper tubes	do	13.75	13.60
24	Spiral springs of steel	do	4.80	2.85
25	Brass tubes for locomotives	do	10.00	10.00
26	Copper, in pieces, for engines	do	12.50	12.50
27	Iron pieces worked up, of immediate application to engines, carriages, and buildings.	do	3.90	3.90

Tariff of the Peninsula and Balearic Islands—Continued.

Number of articles.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties for the nations.	
			Without treaty.	With treaty.
	TARIFF No. 2—Continued.		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
28	Wrought iron, in tubes, for steam boilers	100 kilograms.	1.60	1.60
29	Weighing machines	....do	5.00	5.00
30	Wire for telegraphs	....do	2.10	2.10
31	Poles for telegraphs	Cubic meter ..	2.50	2.50
32	Supports for the same	100 kilograms	5.00	5.00
33	Apparatus for transmission and reception for the same	....do	1.00	1.00
34	Crossings of wood	Cubic meter ..	2.50	2.50
35	Lamps for engines and coaches, and hand lamps	100 kilograms	4.00	4.00
36	Water tanks	.. do	1.70	1.70
37	Disks for signals	....do	3.00	3.00
38	Tubes for carrying water to the tanks, and for letting it out	....do	0.80	0.80
39	Common implements for the road	....do	3.25	3.25
40	Clocks, to be placed on the fronts of railway stations	....do	6.25	6.25

Tariff of duties of regalia on tobaccoes on their introduction into the kingdom, approved by order of the regency of the kingdom October 18, 1870.

Number of article.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties of regalia.
			Pesetas.
1	Snuff, product of and proceeding from Cuba and Porto Rico	Kilogram ...	8.50
2	Powdered tobacco, of and proceeding from Cuba and Porto Rico	....do	18.25
3	Cigars, in boxes, including for payment the duty on the weight of these, of and from Cuba and Porto Rico.	....do	9.75
4	Cigars, loose, of and from Cuba and Porto Rico	....do	13.00
5	Cigarettes (cigarrillos) of paper and loose tobacco ("picadura"), and from Porto Rico, including for duty the weight of the paper and tin or lead sheet in which they come.	....do	8.50
6	Cigars, product of Cuba and Porto Rico, proceeding from foreign ports, including for payment the weight of the boxes containing them.	....do	15.60
7	Cigars, loose, from foreign countries	....do	18.25
8	Cigarettes and cut tobacco, product of Cuba and Porto Rico, proceeding from foreign ports, including for duty the weight of the paper and tin or lead sheet containing them.	....do	14.00
9	Snuff, of foreign production	....do	10.75
10	Foreign tobacco, made into cigars cigarettes, cut ("orbrun"), whatever be the place from whence they come.	....do	16.25
11	(Tusas), small cigar covered with cornhusks	....do	21.50
12	Cigars, product of and proceeding from the Philippine Islands	....do	9.75
13	Cigarettes and cut tobacco, product of and proceeding from the Philippine Islands.	....do	6.50
	Excess of register	....do	2.50
	NOTICE 1.—The country of which the tobacco is a production, and the direct port from which it proceeds, must be established according to the tariff and customs regulations.		
	2D. The clearance payment of duty, and the incidents which may occur on the introduction of tobacco, shall be subject to the same regulations.		

GENERAL TARIFF OF ITALY.

REPORT OF CONSUL CRAIN, OF MILAN.

I inclose herewith a schedule of Italian import and export duties now in force.

The duties entitled "general" are those of the Italian general tariff; those designated "conventional" are prescribed by the treaty of commerce between Italy and Austria-Hungary, and are applicable to merchandise from all countries which by treaty with Italy have "the treatment of the most favored nations."

The following is a *résumé* of the several acts by which this schedule of duties was established:

At the expiration of the special customs treaties which had existed between Italy and France, Austria, and Switzerland, the Italian Parliament, by the law of May 30, 1878, enacted the general tariff. By the treaty of commerce concluded between Italy and Austria-Hungary, December 27, 1878, many import duties were modified and some export duties abolished. These last-mentioned duties were also abolished in the general tariff by the law of January 31, 1879, by which the said treaty was approved. The same law also abolished the import duty on dried chicory, and gave power to the Executive to reform the general tariff as to hemp, flax, and jute, which was done by the royal decree of January 31, 1879.

By the law of July 25, 1879, the general tariff was modified as to sugars, confectionery, preserves, chocolate, coffee, pepper, and cinnamon, and on citrons and limes, though preserved in salt water.

By the act of July 19, 1880, the import duties on mineral and rosin oils were increased, and by a law of July 23, 1881, the export duties on cattle, sheep, goats, swine, fresh meat, poultry, and cheese were abolished.

The labor of compiling the schedule has been considerable, inasmuch as no reprint in the Italian text contains the modifications introduced by Italian legislation since 1879. I inclose the latest government reprint, in which it will be observed I have noted these modifications.

I deem it important to direct attention to certain internal taxes on manufactures, termed "sopratasse," which are extended to the same articles when imported, as follows:

By a law of September 23, 1870, a tax of 4 francs per hectoliter is imposed on "aerated waters."

By act of June 3, 1874, amended July 19, 1880, the heavy tax of 60 centimes per degree and per hectoliter is imposed on alcohol in casks or barrels, and for alcohol in bottles the tax is 42 centimes per liter.

By the same law of June 3, 1874, a tax 9.60 lire per hectoliter is imposed on beer, with the option, however, to the importer to pay 60 centimes per degree and per hectoliter instead.

The law of June 3, 1874, amended by that of July 26, 1874, establishes a "sopratassa" of 30 lire the quintal on chicory.

By the law of May 30, 1878, the 10 per cent. war duty, 5 per cent. forwarding dues, and statistic rights were abolished.

As the conventional tariff negotiated by the commissioners of France and Italy has as yet been ratified by neither nation, and as its fate is altogether uncertain, I have not thought it useful to consider it.

I transmit to the Department by book post (on account of their size and weight) the following printed documents viz: Law of May 30, 1878, embodying the "tariffa generale;" law of January 31, 1879, embodying and giving execution to the treaty of commerce and navigation of December 27, 1878, between Italy and Austria-Hungary; royal decree of January 31, 1879; law of July 25, 1879; and law of July 19, 1880.

DUNHAM J. CRAIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, March 11, 1882.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.*	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY I.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire*
1	Waters mineral, natural, artificial, or aerated.	Quintal	3.00	0.50	
	Waters, mineral, natural, or artificial, are those intended only for medicinal use.				
2	Wines:				
	In casks or barrels	Hectoliter	15.00	5.77	
	In bottles	Per 100	30.00	18.00	
	Bottles containing fermented beverages pay as if containing a liter, although containing a less quantity of liquid; bottles containing more than a liter and not more than two pay at rate of two bottles, and this rule applies to bottles of greater capacity. It makes no difference if the vessels have a form other than that of bottles (demijohns, &c.), or if they are made of clay or material other than glass.				
3	Common vinegar:				
	In casks or barrels	Hectoliter	10.00		
	In bottles	Per 100	25.00		
4	Beer:				
	In casks or barrels	Hectoliter	15.00	2.00	
	In bottles	Per 100	15.00	2.00	
5	Spirits:				
	Pure, in casks or barrels	Hectoliter	25.00	12.00	
	Sweetened or aromatized, comprising rum, brandy, &c., in casks or barrels.	....do	50.00	25.00	
	In bottles of any kind exceeding one-half a liter, but not over a liter.	Per 100	50.00	25.00	
	Of whatever kind, in bottles of half a liter or less.	....do	30.00	18.00	
6	Ether or chloroform	Quintal	*4.00		
7	Oils (usual qualities):				
	Olive oil	....do	6.00	3.00	
	Not named	....do	6.00	6.00	
8	Mineral and resinous oils, except those of turpentine:				
	The duty on mineral oils must be paid without deduction of any tare, either of interior or exterior cases.				
	Crude, in casks, barrels, or cases	Quintal	27.00		
	Rectified, in casks or barrels	....do	33.00		
	Rectified, in stagnoni or bottles	....do	36.00		
	Crude, in stagnoni or bottles	....do	29.00		
9	Oils, volatile or essences:				
	The duty on volatile oils or essences must be paid without deduction of weight of the immediate recipients or vessels containing them.				
	Rose	Kilogram	40.00		
	Orange and its varieties	....do	1.50		
	Not named	....do	1.50		

* Besides this tax, the duty of importation and manufacture must be paid for two liters of spirits for very kilogram of ether or chloroform.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY II.—*Colonials, groceries, and tobacco.*		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
10	Coffee	Quintal	100.00		
11	Chicory and other substances substituted for coffee:				
	Dried	do	Free.		
	Ground, or also only roasted	do	20.00	5.00	
12	Molasses	do	10.00		
	Molasses, unrefined, intended for manufacture of shoemakers' wax or other similar uses, pays 1 franc the quintal, according to rules established by the minister of finance.				
13	Sugar:				
	Refined, in loaf or crushed	do	66.25		
	Unrefined	do	53.00		
	All sugars are deemed refined which are purer than sample No. 20 Holland.				
14	Sweetmeats and preserves, with sugar or honey.	do	70.00		
15	Tea biscuits	do	25.00		
16	Sirups:				
	For beverages	do	50.00		
	Sirups containing medicinal substances are classed as medical compounds.				
	Ficola	do	20.00		
17	Cocoa	do	80.00		
18	Chocolate	do	85.00		
19	Cinnamon	do	120.00		
20	Cloves	do	120.00		
21	Pepper or pimento	do	70.00		
22	Tea	do	350.00		
23	Vaniglia	do	300.00		
24	Saffron	do	300.00		
25	Nutmegs:				
	With shell	do	50.00		
	Without shell	do	250.00		
26	Mustard:				
	In seed	do	Free.		
	Liquid, in powder, or prepared	do	11.00		
27	Spices not mentioned	do	27.50		
28	Tobacco:				
	In leaf or fiber	do	Prohibited.		
	Havana, in cigars	Kilogram	30.00		
	All cigars made of tobacco of Cuba, of Varinas, of Porto Rico, of Java, Manila, Colombia, and other similar qualities are considered Havana.				
	Manufactured, in whatever other quality	do	20.00		
	CATEGORY III.—*Chemical products, drugs, rosin, and perfumes.*				
29	Acids:				
	Arsenic	Quintal	2.00		
	Boracic	do	Free.		2.20
	Gallic, tannic, and acetic				
	Impure	Quintal	Free.		
	Hydrochloric	do	1.00		
	Nitric	do	1.00		
	Sulphuric	do	0.50		
	Tartaric	do	8.00		
	Not named	do	10.00		
30	Ammonia, potash, and caustic soda, pure	do	5.00		
31	Soda, caustic, impure	do	0.50		
32	Alkaloids:				
	Salts of quinine	Kilogram	5.00		
	Not named, and their salts	do	5.00		
33	Oxide of iron, of lead, pewter, and zinc	Quintal	2.00		
34	Acid of alum, of iron, of lead, and of copper	do	1.00		
35	Carbonates:				
	Baryta	Quintal	2.00		
	Magnesia	do	15.00		
	Lead	do	5.00	5.00	
	Soda and potash	do	0.50		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY III.—*Chemical products, drugs, rosin, and perfumes*—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
36	Magnesia, calcined or caustic	Quintal	20.00		
37	Chlorides:				
	Of lime, potash, and soda	Quintal	1.00		
	Of potash	do	1.00		
38	Nitrates:				
	Of silver	Kilogram	5.00		
	Of refined soda and potash	Quintal	3.00		
	Of soda, crude	do	Free.		
39	Borax, or borax of soda	do	0.50		
40	Sea salt or rock salt	Ton	Prohibited.		0.22
41	Sulphates:				
	Of alum, potash, and other alums	Quintal	0.50		
	Of baryta	do	1.00		
	Of iron and manganese	do	2.00		
	Of copper, zinc, and both iron and copper	do	2.00		
	Of mangnesia	do	1.50		
	Of soda and potash	do	0.50		
42	Tartrate (bitartrate of potash), deposits in barrels, or dregs of wine.	do	Free.		2.20
43	Sulphur of mercury (cinnabar or vermilion)	do	100.00	25.00	
44	Matches:				
	Of wood	do	11.00	Free.	
	Of stearine, wax, and the like	do	11.00		
45	Chemical products not named	do	4.00		
46	Gunpowder and other explosives	do	150.00		
47	Explosive capsules and empty cartouches	do	150.00		
48	Licorice roots	do	Free.		
49	Herbs, flowers, leaves, lichens, roots not called, and medicinal.	do	2.00	2.00	
50	Cassia and natural tamarinds	do	7.00		
51	Manna	do	10.00		
52	Camphor:				
	Crude	Quintal	2.00		
	Refined	do	15.00		
53	Barks:				
	Fresh or dry, of lemons, oranges, and their varieties.	Quintal	Free.		
	Of cinchona		Free.		
54	Juices:				
	Of oranges		Free.		
	Of limes and lemons, crude		Free.		
	Of limes and lemons, concentrated		Free.		
	Of aloes and other medicinal vegetables not named.	Quintal	10.00		
55	Medicinal articles, not named	do	10.00		
56	Medicaments compounded, not named (without deducting weight of vessels containing them).	do	120.00		
	Classed as medicaments compounded are medicinal drugs mixed together or mixed with pulp, juices, extracts, or moistened or dissolved with sirups, mucilages, spirits, &c.; also those mixtures in form of powders, dry pastes, either soft or liquid; also artificial balsams.				
57	Gums, rosins, and gummy substances:				
	Indigenous, raw	Quintal	3.00	1.00	
	All other kinds	do	3.00		
58	Soaps:				
	Common	Quintal	6.00	6.00	
	Perfumed	do	30.00	12.00	
59	Sealing-wax	do	30.00	30.00	
60	Perfumery (without deducting weight of vessels containing it).	do	60.00		
	CATEGORY IV.—*Coloring substances and materials for dyeing and tanning.*				
61	Woods, barks, leaves, lichens, flowers, herbs, and fruits, for dyeing and tanning:				
	Not ground	Quintal	Free.	Free.	0.27
	Ground	do	2.00		0.55
	Gambier	do	1.00		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY IV.—*Coloring substances and materials for dyeing and tanning*—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
62	Indigo, cochineal, and kermes	Quintal	7.00	.....	.....
63	Prussiate of potash, yellow and red	....do	8.00	.....	.....
64	Colors derived from tar or from other bituminous substances:				
	In a dry state	Quintal	15.00	.....	.....
	In paste or liquid	....do	10.00	.....	.....
65	Coloring extracts of wood, and all other dyeing stuffs.	....do	12.50	.....	.....
66	Colors, in cakes, in powder, or in any other form.	Quintal	12.00	.....	.....
67	Varnish:				
	In spirits	Quintal	30.00	.....	.....
	In whatever form	do	12.00	.....	.....
68	Pencils:				
	Without cover	Quintal	50.00	10.00	.....
	With cover	....do	50.00	30.00	.....
69	Ink, of every kind	....do	15.00	.....	.....
70	Blacking:				
	For shoes	Quintal	6.00	.....	.....
	Of bone and calcined bones	....do	0.50	.....	.....
	Not named	....do	5.00	.....	.....
	CATEGORY V *				
71	Hemp, linen, jute, and other fibrous vegetables, excluding cotton:				
	Raw	Quintal	Free.	Free.	.....
	Carded	....do	Free.	Free.	.....
72	Cordage and ropes including tarred. Small cord and pack-thread are comprised as cordage, but if of a size less than 2 millimeters, they pass as hemp thread, according to their respective quality.	....do	3.00	3.00	.....
73	Nets	Quintal	4.00	4.00	.....
74	Yarns:				
	Of flax and of hemp, in crude state, washed, or bleached.	Quintal	11.50	11.50	.....
	Of jute, crude	Quintal	10.00	.....	.....
	Of jute, washed or bleached	....do	11.50	.....	.....
75	Yarn of flax, hemp, and jute:				
	Dyed	Quintal	17.10	17.10	.....
76	Twisted, crude, washed, or bleached	....do	23.10	23.10	.....
77	Twisted, dyed	....do	34.65	34.65	.....
78	Textures of raw jute. The least tax that tissues of jute can pay is that of 20 lire, as the special tax for packing stuffs is not extended to it.	....do	20.00	.....	.....
79	Tissues of jute of whatever kind. Same as linen and hemp textures, according to quality. To these tissues, mixed, as well as those of the sixth and seventh categories, is applicable the duty of the material which dominates in weight over the other, and in case the weight is equal, the duty of the most taxed material.				
80	Textures of flax and hemp together, not having more than 5 threads in the warp in the space of 5 millimeters:				
	Raw or bleached, exclusive of that for packing.	Quintal	23.10	23.10	.....
	For packing, girths, and tubes	Quintal	12.00	12.00	.....
	Dyed, or manufactured with dyed yarn	....do	38.00	38.00	.....
	Tissues, raw or bleached, with few and narrow lines, colored, designed to be used in hospitals and similar pious places, for military furniture, or for bags or other packing purposes, are taxed like other tissues of hemp, flax, [illegible]ton, &c., raw or bleached, according to quality.				
81	Textures of flax and hemp together which have over 5 threads in warp in the space of 5 millimeters.				
	Raw, bleached or mixed with white	Quintal	57.75	57.75	.....
	Tinted or made with colored thread	....do	90.00	90.00	.....

*The conventional duties never apply to jute.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY V.—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
82	Textures of flax and hemp stamped (printed). Also, for the worked or damasked tissues of this category, as well as those of cotton, the duty is paid according as they are raw, bleached, dyed, or printed, and according to the number of threads of the yarn. Yarn composed of more than one thread is counted for 2 or more according to their number. If in cotton tissues the threads cannot be counted either in the woof or warp (catena), count is made of the threads in one only, and the number is doubled if the threads of both are of the same size or composed of the same number of threads. When in tissues of flax, hemp, or cotton it is impossible to count the threads, the duty applicable to them is that of knitted goods.	Quintal	115.00	115.00	
83	Tissues of flax and hemp embroidered. There are some worked tissues which at first sight might be thought embroidered. But it is easy to distinguish them, because in the first the work is most regular in the most minute parts, and if the woof is withdrawn it unravels, while in the second embroidered by hand or in the loom there is always something wanting in the regularity and the embroidery prevents unraveling.	do	300.00	250.00	
84	Stuffs of flax or hemp waxed (oil cloths).				
	For pavements and tarred and oiled stuffs	do	25.00	20.00	
	Of any other kind	do	50.00	40.00	
85	Trimmings of flax and hemp and knit goods	do	110.00	110.00	
86	Buttons and ribbons of flax and hemp. Ribbons and galloons are distinguished from trimmings being worked with the shuttle, or made of warp and woof; while trimmings, cords, and the like, are made by braiding, twisting, spinning, &c.	do	130.00	100.00	
87	Laces and tulles	Kilogram	30.00		
88	Sewed articles	Quintal	(*)	(*)	
	CATEGORY VI.				
89	Cottons:				
	In bales or in mass	Quintal	Free.		
	Carded (wadding)	do	6.00		
90	Cotton yarns, single, gray:				
	Which do not measure more than 10,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	18.00		
	Which measure from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	22.00		
	More than 20,000 and up to 30,000 meters the half kilogram	do	26.00		
	More than 30,000 and up to 40,000 meters the half kilogram	do	32.00		
	More than 40,000 and up to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	39.00		
	More than 50,000 and up to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	48.00		
	More than 60,000 meters for each half kilogram	do	60.00		
91	Yarns, bleached:				
	Measuring not more than 10,000 meters to the half kilogram	Quintal	21.60		
	Measuring from 10,000 up to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	26.40		
	From 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	31.20		
	From 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	38.40		
	From 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram	do	46.80		

*Like the tissues of which they are composed, with 10 per cent. additional.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY VI.—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Yarns, bleached—Continued.				
	From 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram	Quintal	57.60		
	More than 60,000 meters for each half kilogram	....do	72.00		
92	Dyed yarns, single:				
	Measuring 10,000 meters to the half kilogram	Quintal	43.00		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	47.00		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	51.00		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	57.00		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	64.00		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	73.00		
	More than 60,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	85.00		
93	Yarns, twisted, unbleached:				
	Measuring 10,000 meters to the half kilogram	Quintal	23.40		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	28.60		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	33.80		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	41.60		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	50.70		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram	.... do	62.40		
	Measuring more than 60,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	78.00		
93	Yarns, bleached, twisted:				
	Measuring not over 10,000 meters to the half kilogram.	Quintal	28.08		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	34.32		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	40.56		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	49.92		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	60.84		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	74.88		
	Over 60,000 meters to the half kilogram	....do	93.60		
	Yarns, dyed, twisted:				
	Which measure not over 10,000 meters to the half kilogram.	Quintal	55.90		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	61.10		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	66.30		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	74.10		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	83.20		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	94.90		
	Measuring over 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	110.50		
	In twisted thread, the classification is established by multiplying the length by the number of threads. For example, thread twisted of three threads, having a length of 5,000 meters to the half kilogram, is considered as having 15,000 meters of length to the half kilogram, and is classed as twisted thread, measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram, with a duty of 28.60 lire, 34.32 lire, or 61.10 lire to the quintal, according as it is raw, bleached, or dyed.				

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY VI—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
94	Warps, single, unbleached:				
	Measuring not over 10,000 meters for every half kilogram.	Quintal	20.70		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	25.30		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	29.90		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	36.80		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	44.85		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	55.20		
	Measuring more than 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	69.00		
	Warps, single, bleached:				
	Measuring not over 10,000 meters to the half kilogram.	Quintal	24.84		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	30.36		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	35.88		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	44.16		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	53.82		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	66.24		
	Measuring over 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	82.80		
	Warps, single, dyed:				
	Measuring not over 10,000 meters to the half kilogram:	Quintal	49.45		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	...do	54.05		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	58.65		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	65.55		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	73.60		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	... do	83.95		
	Measuring over 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	97.75		
	Warps, twisted, unbleached:				
	Measuring not over 10,000 meters for every half kilogram.	Quintal	26.91		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	32.89		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	38.87		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	47.84		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	58.30		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	71.76		
	Measuring more than 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	89.70		
	Warps, twisted, bleached:				
	Measuring not over 10,000 meters to the half kilogram.	Quintal	32.29		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	39.47		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	46.64		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	57.41		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	69.97		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	86.11		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY VI—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Warps, twisted, bleached.—Continued.				
	Measuring from over 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	Quintal	107.64		
	Warps, twisted, dyed:				
	Measuring not over 10,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	64.28		
	Measuring from 10,000 to 20,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	70.26		
	Measuring from 20,000 to 30,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	76.24		
	Measuring from 30,000 to 40,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	85.21		
	Measuring from 40,000 to 50,000 meters to the half kilogram.	.. do	95.68		
	Measuring from 50,000 to 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	109.13		
	Measuring over 60,000 meters to the half kilogram.	....do	127.07		
95	Tissues unbleached, weighing 13 kilograms or more to the 100 square meters, which have in a square of 5 millimeters of woof and warp on each side:				
	Twenty-seven elementary threads or less	....do	57.00		
	More than twenty-seven threads	....do	64.00		
	To fix the weight in relation to the measure, it is not necessary to open and measure them one by one. The equal pieces are placed together, and one is selected for opening. As the folds are of equal length, multiplying the length of one fold by the number of folds gives the length of the whole piece. This obtained, and multiplying the length by the width, we have the number of square meters. The whole width being ascertained, it is easy to find the weight of 100 square meters in order to apply the duty.				
95	To establish the number of threads in a square of 5 millimeters one must count and add together the threads of the warp and those of the woof.				
	Tissues unbleached, of the weight of 7 kilograms or more, but less than 13 kilograms to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	Quintal	66.00		
	More than 27 threads	....do	75.00		
	Tissues, raw, weighing less than 7 kilograms to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
96	27 elementary threads or less	....do	80.00		
	More than 27 threads	....do	100.00		
	Tissues, bleached, weighing 13 kilograms and more to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	....do	68.40		
	More than 27 threads	....do	76.80		
	Tissues, bleached, weighing 7 kilograms or more, but less than 13 kilograms to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	....do	79.20		
	More than 27 threads	....do	90.00		
	Tissues, bleached, weighing less than 7 kilograms to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	....do	96.00		
	More than 27 threads	....do	120.00		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY VI—Continued.				
97	Raw tissues, but having a mixture of white, are considered bleached.				
	Tissues, dyed, weighing 13 kilograms or more to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	27 elementary threads or less	Quintal	92.00		
	More than 27 threads	do	99.00		
	Tissues, dyed, weighing 7 kilograms or more, but less than 13 kilograms to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	do	101.00		
	More than 27 threads	do	110.00		
	Tissues, dyed, weighing less than 7 kilograms to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	do	115.00		
	More than 27 threads	do	135.00		
	Tissues, stamped (printed), weighing 13 kilograms or more to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	do	138.40		
	More than 27 threads	do	146.80		
	Tissues, printed, weighing 7 kilograms or more, but less than 13 to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	do	149.20		
	More than 27 threads	do	160.00		
	Tissues, printed, weighing less than 7 kilograms to the 100 square meters, which have in warp and woof in a square of 5 millimeters:				
	27 elementary threads or less	do	166.00		
	More than 27 threads	do	190.00		
99	Tissues, embroidered (see note to No. 83)	do	300.00		
100	Tulles, ganzes, and muslins	do	300.00		
101	Tissues, oiled:				
	For floors and tarred tissues	do	25.00		
	All other kinds	do	50.00		
102	Buttons, knitted goods, braids, coverlids	do	100.00		
103	Ribbons, galloons (see note to No. 86)	do	90.00		
104	Laces	do	300.00		
105	Velvets:				
	Raw	do	120.00		
	Bleached	do	140.00		
	Dyed	do	155.00		
106	Sewed articles		(*)		
	When sewed articles cannot be classified on the basis of weight according to the superficies and according to the number of threads which are in a square of 5 millimeters they are subject to the class the highest taxed. (See note to No. 88.)				
	CATEGORY VII.—*Wool and hair.*				
107	Wool, natural, washed, carded, dyed; waste or refuse wool.	Quintal	Free		
108	Horse hair:				
	Raw, dyed, and all other kinds	Quintal	Free		
	Twisted, cords and rough articles of horse hair.	do	8.00		
109	Yarn of wool or hair single:				
	Raw or unbleached	Quintal	50.00		
	Simple, dyed	do	75.00		
	Twisted, raw, or unbleached	do	65.00		
	Twisted, dyed	do	97.50		
110	Mattresses of all kinds	do	15.00		

* Like the tissues of which they are composed and 10 per cent. additional.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports. General.	Duties on imports. Conventional.	Duties on exports.
	CATEGORY VII.—*Wool and hair*—Continued.				
111	Tissues of wool: (In this category the duty is according to that material which dominates in weight. But in those in which wool dominates is applied the lesser duties of the letters *b* and *d* if the threads of the warp are of cotton.)		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Carded	Quintal	165.00	150.00	.....
	Carded, with warp composed entirely of cotton yarn.	....do	110.00	100.00	.....
	Carded	....do	200.00	.....	.....
	Combed with warp composed entirely of cotton thread.	....do	155.00	.....	.....
	Embroidered	....do	400.00	(*)	.....
112	Felts:				
	For hats	Quintal	18.00	.....	.....
	Tarred, pressed for soles, &c	....do	7.00	.....	.....
113	Tissues of hair:				
	For sieves	Quintal	30.00	30.00	.....
	All other kinds	....do	165.00	.....	.....
114	Braids, knitted goods	....do	200.00	.....	.....
115	Ribbons and galloons	....do	220.00	.....	.....
116	Buttons	....do	220.00	.....	.....
117	Laces and tulles	....do	300.00	.....	.....
118	Covers made of waste strips of woolen cloth	....do	60.00	.....	.....
119	Carpets made of strips of waste woolen cloth	....do	60.00	.....	.....
120	Covers and carpets of wool	....do	110.00	(†)	.....
	Covers and carpets of wool mixed with waste woolen or hair materials when it is not possible to ascertain which predominates, the wool or other material will pay like covers or carpets of wool. Covers not separated the one from the other, but in one piece, are always considered such if they have colored lines or other marks which indicate the place of separation and the end intended for the head.				
121	Sewed articles	....do	(‡)	(‡)	.....
	Sewed articles composed of tissues subject to different duties, and when it cannot be determined which predominates, pay as if made entirely of the tissues most taxed. (See No. 88.)				
	CATEGORY VIII.—*Silk.*				
122	Eggs of the silk worm	Kilogram	Free	.....	.....
123	Cocoons	Quintal	Free	.....	.....
	By these are intended those either with or without the butterfly, but having the silk entire, and those from which the silk properly called has been taken are considered as *cascami* of raw silk.				
124	Silk:				
	Drawn single, doubled or twisted, raw	Quintal	Free	.....	38.50
	Drawn single, doubled or twisted, dyed	Kilogram	1.00	.....	.....
	For sewing	....do	3.00	.....	.....
125	Waste silk:				
	Raw	Quintal	Free	.....	8.80
	Carded	....do	50.00	.....	8.80
	Spun	....do	50.00	.....	.....
	Dyed	....do	100.00	.....	.....
126	Velvets of silk	Kilogram	5.00	.....	.....
127	Tissues:				
	Of black silk	Kilogram	5.00	.....	.....
	Of silk not named	....do	6.00	.....	.....
	Of silk waste	....do	5.00	.....	.....

* In applying the treaty, shawls and small shawls of black wool coarsely embroidered with silk on one side only, also garnished with silk fringe, will be treated according to the quality of the tissues without regard to the embroidery or fringe.

† Under the treaty, ordinary covers called "schiavinne" bleached all white, or with a simple colored line, will be admitted up to 400 quintals per year at the duty of 21.50 lire the 100 kilograms, always provided that their origin is shown to be from Austria-Hungary by certificate of a competent authority.

‡ Like the tissues of which they are composed and 10 per cent. additional.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY VIII—*Silk*—Continued.				
	Tissues—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Of silk or waste silk mixed with other material in which silk or waste silk of any kind or color exceeds 12 per cent. and not over 50 per cent.	Kilogram	3.00		
128	Tissues, ordinary, of waste silk called "stoppolini," mixed or not mixed with other material.	do	2.00		
	Galloons, ribbons, covers, knit-work, braids of silk, and silk waste pay according to the respective tissues.				
129	Laces and tulles of silk:				
	Unworked	Kilogram	12.00		
	Worked	do	18.00		
130	Laces, galloons, and tulles of silk, or of silk waste, mixed with gold or silver, real or false.	do	15.00		
131	Buttons:				
	Covered with silk	Kilogram	4.00		
	Covered with silk or silk waste, mixed with other material, to be considered such it suffices to have the right side covered with silk or silk waste. It makes no exception if cotton, wool, or other material is visible on the other side.	do	2.00		
132	Articles sewed. (See note No. 88)	do	(*)		
	CATEGORY IX.				
133	Charcoal	Ton	Free	Free	
134	Wood for fuel	do	do	do	
135	Wood:				
	For ebonists, unsawed	Quintal	2.00		
	For ebonists, sawed	do	4.00	4.00	
	In boards or squares inlaid for floors	do	6.00	4.00	
	Common, upland, sawed, split, or only hewed or squared with the ax.	Square meter	1.00	Free	
	In small boards for boxes, sieves, and the like, also in hoops of any length.	Quintal	1.00	do	
136	Casks, new or old, with iron or wooden hoops.	Hectoliter (capacity).	0.20		
137	Furniture:				
	Of wood, common, carved, not upholstered	Quintals	20.00	7.50	
	Other common wood, not upholstered	do	20.00	13.00	
	Common wood, upholstered	do	40.00		
	Of wood for ebonists, veneered or inlaid also upholstered.	do	60.00		
138	Oars and poles	do	Free	Free	
139	Roots for brushes	do	do		
140	Cork wood:				
	Unworked	Quintals	Free		
	Worked	do	15.00		
141	Utensils and various works of common wood:				
	Not polished or painted	do	8.00	Free	
	Other kinds	do	8.00	8.00	
142	Wooden goods, including toys	do	55.00	40.00	
143	Carts, common	Each	22.00		
144	Carriages, common road:				
	Of two wheels	Each	33.00	33.00	
	Of four wheels and four springs	do	110.00	110.00	
	Of four wheels and more than four springs	do	330.00		
145	Ships, barks, and boats	Registered tonnage.	Free		
146	Canes, reeds, and rushes	Quintal	do		
147	Basketwork and mats:				
	Coarse	Quintal	5.50	Free	
	By these are understood baskets, and the like, made of strips of wood, rushes, or reeds, coarsely worked, to carry materials and merchandise, or for country use; also mats for floors and things made of rushes to encase goods, and mats made of canes as lath.				

* Like the tissues of which they are composed, with 10 per cent. additional.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY IX—Continued.				
	Basketwork and mats—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Fine articles	Quintal	22.00		
	These comprise ladies' baskets, small mats, and all similar objects of domestic use, made of reeds, rushes, roots, and branches, whole or split, natural or dyed. All mats for floors are included, except those of rushes.				
148	Braided:				
	Of straw	Quintal	Free		
	Of bark, &c., for fine hats	do	Free		
	Of bark, &c., for ordinary hats	do	Free		
	Of bark, &c., for ropes and other articles	do	Free		
149	Ropes of esparto, linden, and the like	do	1.50		
150	Straw hats, except those trimmed for ladies	do	10.00		
	CATEGORY X.—*Paper and books.*				
151	Rags of all kinds	Quintal	Free		8.80
152	Paste (pulp) of wood, straw, and similar substances	do	Free	Free	
153	Paper:				
	White, or tinted paste, of all qualities	Quintal	10.00	10.00	
	Colored, gilt or painted, or figured	do	25.00	25.00	
	Blotting paper and coarse paper for packing.	do	5.00	Free	
	By blotting paper is intended that known in commerce by the name of blotting paper, and not all kinds of paper without glue. By packing paper is meant that of colored pulp, rough and coarse.				
154	Geographical maps	do	3.00		
155	Playing cards	100 packs	20.00		
156	Things printed, lithographs, and placards	Quintal	70.00		
157	Pasteboards:				
	These are made of several leaves, glued together, so that tearing them they can be separated.				
	Common	Quintal	8.00	Free	
	By common is meant that which is made by pressure and not by glue.				
	Fine	do	8.00	8.00	
158	Printed books:				
	Not bound, or simply stitched	Quintal	Free	Free	
	Bound in paper covers	do	12.60		
	Bound in leather or parchment	do	20.00		
	Bound in any other way, in velvet, ivory, &c., garnished with gold or silver.	do	100.00		
159	Books not printed (ledgers):				
	Not bound, or bound in paper	Quintal	10.00	10.00	
	Bound in leather or parchment	do	35.00	15.00	
	Bound in any other way	do	100.00	100.69	
160	Printed music	do	5.00		
161	Manuscripts	do	Free		
	CATEGORY XI.—*Skins or hides.*				
162	Skins or hides:				
	Raw, fresh, or dried, not suitable for fur	Quintal	Free	Free	
	These are such as have not been in any way tanned, but only dried, put in ashes, or salted to keep from spoiling. Such hides put in water become quickly good for tanning, and when tanned and worked serve shoemakers, saddlers, trunk-makers, glove-makers, and all who use skins without hair.				
	Raw, fresh, or dried for fur	do	5.00	5.00	2.20
	Raw skins for fur should be in the same condition as those indicated in the preceding note. Such skins are tanned with the hair and are used by furriers.				
	Tanned with hair, fine	do	60.00		
	Tanned with hair, common	do	30.00		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY XI.—*Skins or hides*—Continued.				
	Skins or hides—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Simply tanned without hair or taken from the vat and not finished.	Quintal	25.00	.....	.....
	Hides simply tanned and not finished are those which have been only tanned, *i. e.*, in vats more or less time with tanning matter, and which being taken out and dried are put in the market without having been worked by the several operations of tanners. Such hides are not dried, are shriveled, and show on the surface the tanning material, and are not pliable and elastic like finished leather.				
	Morocco leather of any color	....do	80.00	.....	.....
	Morocco leathers are skins of any animal prepared without oil or other greasy materials, and which have on the right side minute points formed by crossing of lines.				
	Varnished leathers	Quintal	100.00	.....	.....
	Tanned without hair and finished, not named.	....do	30.00	.....	.....
	Tanned goat and lamb	....do	20.00	.....	.....
	Cut for legs and upper leather and strips for hats.	....do	(*)	.....	.....
163	The refuse of hides	....do	Free	.....	.....
164	Muffs of fur:				
	Fine	Per 100	600.00	.....	.....
	Common	....do	300.00	.....	.....
165	Furriers' articles, not named:				
	Made with fine fur	Quintal	600.00	.....	.....
	Made of common fur	....do	300.00	.....	.....
166	Harness:				
	Common	Quintal	60.00	.....	.....
	Ornamented	....do	90.00	.....	.....
167	Saddles	Per 100	900.00	.....	.....
168	Saddlers' articles, not named	Quintal	60.00	50.00	.....
169	Gloves of any kind of leather; also, simply cut.	Per 100 pairs	20.00	.....	.....
170	Boots and shoes:				
	Boots and shoes and buskins	Per 100 pair	110.00	.....	.....
	All other kinds	....do	70.00	.....	.....
171	Valises	Each	2.00	.....	.....
172	Articles of tanned skins without hair, not named.	Quintal	70.50	.....	.....
	CATEGORY XII.—*Minerals, metals, and articles made of them.*				
173	Metallic minerals:				
	Of iron	Ton	Free	.....	0.22
	Of lead, even argentiferous	....do	Free	.....	2.20
	Copper	....do	Free	.....	5.50
	Zinc	....do	Free	.....	.....
	All other kinds	Quintal	Free	.....	.....
174	Scoria produced by the fusion of minerals and by the affinity of metals and metallic products.	....do	Free	.....	.....
175	Scraps, scales, and filings of iron, cast iron, or steel	....do	Free	Free	.....
	All works of iron, cast iron, or steel, and all pieces thereof, new or old, are considered scraps, which can only be utilized by fusion. Projectiles of artillery and rusty cannon not serviceable are considered as scraps without the necessity of breaking them up.				
176	Cast iron:				
	In pig	Ton	Free	Free	.....
	Worked in rough castings	Quintal	4.00	4.00	.....
	Worked in smooth castings, turned, treated with other metal, enameled, varnished; also, with ornaments of other metals.	....do	5.00	5.00	.....

* Like the respective skins, with 10 per cent. additional.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY XII.—*Minerals, metals, and articles made of them*—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
177	Raw, in pigs, and steel in ingots	Quintal	2.00	2.00	
	Iron in pig is that which is not freed of dross and that cannot be used without first being subjected to hammering and reduced to real iron.				
178	Iron and steel, not tempered:				
	In numbers 178 and 179 are comprehended iron and steel simply rolled or hammered. Any additional work after rolling and hammering causes iron to pass to the condition of second manufacture, and steel to stere otherwise worked. Iron rolled or hammered for construction of wagons, bridges, machinery, and for buildings, when not perforated or otherwise worked, is classed under numbers 178 and 179. Iron at T or double T reenters under number 178*a* when not worked in the same manner.				
	a. Rolled or hammered (laminato o battuto) rods of more than 5 millimeters of or diameter, and bars of all dimensions.	Quintal	4.62	4.62	
	b. In rods (including wire) 5 millimeters less in diameter or of side.	....do	8.00	8.00	
	The article *b* comprehends rectangular, square, hexagonal, octagonal, and the like when they have a side of 5 millimeters or less.				
	c. In plates 4 millimeters thick and above.	....do	4.62	4.62	
	d. In plates less than 4 millimeters thick, and also in pipes.	....do	8.00	8.00	
	By plates are meant sheets and plates over 20 centimeters wide, and also of a less width, if not 3 meters long. Sheets and plates 20 centimeters wide or less, 3 meters or more in length, pay like iron and steel rolled or hammered, or in rods or wire, lettered *a*, *b*, of this number, according to thickness.				
179	Iron and steel forged into axletrees, anchors, anvils, or other coarse works.	....do	7.00	7.00	
180	Iron and steel in rails for railways	....do	3.00	3.00	
	Those are admitted as rails which are in sections similar to those adopted by the public railways.				
181	Iron of second fabrication (works in iron):				
	Plain	Quintals	11.80	11.80	
	Fitted up with other metals	....do	14.00	14.00	
182	Tin plate (sheets of iron covered with tin, zinc, or lead):				
	Not worked	Quintals	10.75	10.75	
	Worked, also fitted up with other metals	....do	16.00	16.00	
183	Steel:				
	Tempered, in bars, rods, plates, and steel wire.	Quintals	10.00		
	In springs of all kinds	....do	15.00	15.00	
	Otherwise wrought	....do	25.00	25.00	
184	Knives for the arts and trades, and knives with common wooden handles, not ornamented.	....do	16.00		
185	Utensils and instruments for arts, trades, and agriculture, of iron, steel, or iron and steel:				
	Sickles and small sickles	Quintals	14.00	10.00	
	Not named	....do	14.00	12.00	
186	Copper, brass, and bronze:				
	In pigs, cakes, and scraps	Quintals	4.00		
	In rods, sheets, and pipes	....do	10.00		
	In wire of less than 5 millimeters of thickness.	....do	15.00		
	Hammered, in coarse work	....do	15.00		
	In other work	....do	25.00		
	In rods or wire, gilt or galvanized	....do	100.00		
	Gilt or galvanized, wound on cord or fibrous substance.	....do	100.00		
	Gilt or silvered, in other work	....do	120.00		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY XII.—*Minerals, metals, and articles made of them*—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
187	Metallic tissues:				
	Of iron and steel	Quintals	20.00		
	Of brass and copper	....do	20.00		
188	Nickel and its alloys with copper and zinc:				
	In pigs, cakes, and scraps	Quintals	4.00	4.00	
	In sheets, rods, and iron	....do	10.00	10.00	
	In other work	....do	100.00	60.00	
189	Lead and its alloys with antimony:				
	In pigs and cakes	Quintals	0.50		
	Hammered in sheets or in pipes	....do	3.00		
	In type	....do	5.00		
	In other work, also in balls and shot	....do	5.00		
190	Pewter and its alloys with lead and antimony:				
	In pigs, rods, and scraps	Quintals	4.00		
	Hammered in sheets of any kind	....do	15.00		
	In all other work	....do	20.00		
191	Zinc:				
	In pig or scrap	Quintals	1.00		
	Rolled or sheets	....do	4.00		
	In other work, without gilt	....do	12.00		
	In other work, with gilt	....do	58.00		
192	Antimony and arsenic in a metallic state	....do	1.00		
193	Mercury	....do	10.00		
194	Metals not named and alloys not named:				
	In raw state	Quintals	5.00		
	In all kinds of work	....do	100.00		
195	Guns:				
	Finished	Per 100	600.00		
	In pieces	Quintal	200.00		
196	Pistols and revolvers:				
	Finished	Per 100	350.00		
	In pieces	Quintal	700.00		
197	Sabers and swords:				
	Mounted	Per 100	200.00		
198	Engines, steam:				
	With or without boilers, and hydraulic motion.	Quintal	8.00	6.00	
	Locomotive (including tender) and for vessels with or without boilers.	....do	10.00	8.00	
	Not named, and detached parts of machines.	....do	8.00	6.00	
199	Gasometers and their appurtenances	....do	8.00		
200	Apparatus of copper and other metals to heat, refine, distil, &c.	....do	10.00	10.00	
201	Boilers, detached, of iron and steel plates, with or without boilers, tubes, or heaters.	....do	10.00	8.00	
202	Carding apparatus	....do	30.00		
	Cards are classed among machines not named. Cards and their furniture are taxed separately with their respective duty, though presented together in the custom-house.				
203	Wagons for railways:				
	For baggage and merchandise	Quintal	9.00	7.00	
	For passengers	....do	15.00	13.00	
204	Gold:				
	Crude, in bars, in dust, in scraps	Kilogram	Free		
	Rolled in sheets, in tinsel, and drawn through a wire plate.	....do	10.00		
	Wound on silk	....do	10.00		
	Hammered in leaves (without deducting weight of paper).	....do	10.00		
	Money of	....do	Free		
205	Silver:				
	Crude, in rods, dust, or scrap	....do	Free		
	Rolled in sheets, tinsel, or drawn through wire plate.	....do	10.00		
	Wound on silk	....do	10.00		
	Hammered in leaves	....do	5.00		
	Money of	....do	Free		
206	Silversmith wares:				
	Gold	Hectogram	14.00		
	Silver, even gilt	Kilogram	9.00		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY XII.—*Minerals, metals, and articles made of them*—Continued.				
207	Jewelry:				
	By jewelry is meant objects of luxury, small, precious by work and material, and intended for personal ornament.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Of gold	Hectogram	14.00		
	Of silver or gilt	Kilogram	10.00		
208	Watches and clocks:				
	Pocket watches in gold cases	Each	3.00		
	Watches in cases of any other metal	Each	1.00		
	Clocks	Each	5.00		
	Stands and glass covers and similar adjuncts, though presented with the clock, must be taxed separately, according to the respective article in the tariff.				
209	Barrel organs and music boxes	Each	2.00		
210	Watch and clock movements:				
	Of watches	Each	0.25		
	Of house clocks	Quintal	50.00		
	For towers and churches	do	20.00		
211	Watch and clock furniture	do	50.00		
212	Stones, earth, pottery, glass and crystal, precious stones worked:				
	Rubies, emeralds, diamonds, &c	Hectogram	14.00		
	Agates, opals, onyx, &c	Kilograms	9.00		
213	Marble, rough	Ton	Free		
214	Alabaster, rough	Quintal	Free		
215	Marble and alabaster of any quality:				
	In slabs 16 centimeters thick and more	Quintal	0.50		
	In statuary	do	Free		
	Otherwise worked	do	0.75		
216	Stone for building, rough, sawed, sculptured or polished, comprising statutes.	Ton	Free	Free	
217	Colored earth (clay) pitchers, jars, &c	Quintal	4.00		
218	Stones, earth, and minerals, not metallic; chalk, lime, and cement.	Ton	Free		
219	Brick (tiles, bricks, flat tiles, crude squares for flooring, terra-cotta pipes.		Free	Free	
220	Sulphur, raw or refined flower of sulphur	Quintal	Free		1.10
221	Bituminous solids	do	0.50		
222	Coal, mineral, natural, or carbonized (coke)	Ton	Free		
223	....do	Quintal	do		
224	Works of common clay:				
	Squares for floors, enameled or polished	Quintal	1.10		
	Not named (crucibles, jars, stoves, &c)	do	2.20	1.50	
	Included in these are utensils and pottery of common clay without, enameling or only covered with one metallic coating of brown, yellow, green, or red.				
225	Majolica work:				
	Common, or of colored paste with opaque varnish.	Quintal	9.00		
	Fine or white paste	do	13.00		
	Gilt or otherwise decorated	do	20.00		
226	Works in porcelain:				
	White	Quintal	18.00	12.00	
	Gilt or otherwise decorated	do	35.00		
	Products of the ceramic art, decorated with holders or pedestals or other furniture of metal, are classified like merchandise according to their respective quality, save the exceptions in the explanatory index.				
227	Plates of crystal and glass:				
	Not polished (except common ones for windows).	Quintal	8.00	3.75	
	Common, for windows	do	8.00		

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on imports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY XII.—*Minerals, metals, and articles made of them*—Continued.				
	Plates of crystal and glass—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Polished and not leaded	Quintal	25.00	20.00	
	Plates or panes polished or smoothed are distinguished from those not polished or crude in that they first present a uniform surface, while the common ones for windows are always uneven; and the others not polished have an uneven surface, and generally contain scattered sand on the side which has touched the metal in which it was molded.				
228	Looking-glasses, framed and unframed, polished and quicksilvered (without deducting weight of the immediate case holding the same).	....do	50.00	35.00	
229	Works of glass and crystal:				
	Vases, tubes, and similar vessels having cuts to indicate the divisions in millimeters or degrees are considered as belonging to the class of optical instruments, of calculation, &c.				
	Simply blown, or molded, not colored, ground or cut.	....do	12.00	*a* 7.00	
	Colored or ground	....do	18.00	11.00	
230	Common bottles	Per 100	3.00		
231	Demijohns	Quintal	3.00		
232	Broken glass	....do	Free		
233	Glass crystals enameled in all kinds, cut as gems, or in pieces for chandeliers and the like, &c.	....do	50.00	30.00	
234	Glassing and enameling in cakes, in rods, or in powder.	....do	3.00		
	CATEGORY XIV.—*Cereals, flour, paste, and vegetable products not comprised in other categories.*				
235	Wheat and grain	Ton	14.00		
236	Grain (other than oats)	....do	11.50		
237	Oats	....do	11.50		
238	Chestnuts	....do	Free		
239	Potatoes	....do	do.		
240	Rice, with husk or without	....do	do.		
241	Flour	Quintal	2.77		
242	Bran	....do	0.86		
243	Paste of wheat	....do	5.50		
244	Sea bread and biscuits	....do	5.50		
245	Refuse material (fecule)	....do	Free		
246	Starch	....do	4.50	3.00	
247	Oranges and lemons, also in salt water	....do	4.00		
248	Citrons and limes, also in salt water	....do	Free		
249	Fresh grapes	....do	7.50	Free	
250	Fresh fruits not named	....do	1.00	Free	
251	Dates	....do	12.00		
252	Carob fruit	....do	1.75		
253	Pistachio nuts with or without hull	....do	8.00		
254	Dried fruits:				
	Almonds without shell	Quintal	Free		
	Almonds with shell	....do	Free		
	Nuts and small nuts	....do	Free		
	Oily nuts not named	....do	Free		
	Figs	....do	10.00		
	Raisins	....do	10.00		
	Not named	....do	10.00	2.00	
255	Fruits, legumes, and vegetables:				
	In vinegar, in salt, and in oil	Quintal	12.00		
	In spirits of wine	....do	40.00		
256	Mushrooms and truffles	....do	10.00		
257	Hops	....do	1.00		
258	Seeds of various kinds	....do	Free		1.10
259	Palm and cocoa oil	....do	1.00		
260	Cakes of nuts and other material	....do	Free	Free	

(*a*) Works comprised in this article have the conventional duty, though they have edges, bottom, or stoppers ground or polished.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports. General.	Duties on imports. Conventional.	Duties on imports.
	CATEGORY XIV.—*Cereals, flour, pasts, and vegetable products not comprised in other categories*—Continued.				
261	Vegetable products:		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Legumes and vegetables	Quintal	Free		
	Not named	do	Free		
	CATEGORY XV.—*Animals, products and remains of animals not comprised in other categories.*				
262	Horses	Each	20.00	Free	
263	Mules	do	6.00		
264	Asses	do	1.50		
265	Oxen and bulls, known as such when they have no longer milk teeth:				
	Of less than 250 kilograms	Each	18.00	15.00	
	Of greater weight	do	18.00	15.00	
266	Cows, known as such after losing their milk teeth:				
	Less than 150 kilograms of weight	Each	7.50	7.50	
	Of larger weight	do	7.50	7.50	
267	Heifers and steers, known as such if they still have some milk teeth.	do	6.00	5.00	
268	Calves, are so considered when having all the milk teeth.	do	3.00	2.00	
269	Sheep and goats	do	0.20	0.20	
270	Swine:				
	Weighing 20 kilograms or less	Each	0.75		
	Weighing more than 20 kilograms	do	2.50		
271	Meat:				
	Fresh, and of fowls	Quintal	5.00		
	Animals, slaughtered, but entire, excepting game, pay same duty as fresh meat when cut up.				
	Salted, smoked, or otherwise prepared	Quintal	25.00	*a* 20.00	
	Cooked	do	5.00		
272	Extract of meat	do	40.00		
273	Game	do	15.00		
274	Leeches	do	Free		
275	Intestines:				
	Fresh	Quintal	Free		
	Salted	do	4.00		
276	Fish:				
	Fresh, of any kind	Quintal	Free	Free	
	Dried or smoked	do	5.00	(*b*)	
	Put down in salt	do	6.00		
	Put down in oil	do	10.00		
	Preserved in boxes	do	10.00		
277	Caviar and other eggs of fish, preserved	do	30.00		
278	Milk	do	Free		
279	Extract of milk	do	15.00		
280	Butter:				
	Fresh	Quintal	10.00	5.00	
	Salted	do	15.00		
281	Cheese	do	15.00	*c* 8.00	
282	Eggs of fowls	do	Free		
283	Fat of all kinds	do	1.00		
284	Stearic acid	do	10.00		
285	Stearic candles	do	15.00		
286	Bees in hives	do	Free		
287	Honey of all kinds	do	10.00	5.00	
288	Wax:				
	Yellow, not worked	Quintal	15.00		
	Yellow, worked	do	20.00		
	White, unworked	do	30.00		
	White, worked	do	40.00		
	Waste of wax candles	do	10.00		

(*a*) By the treaty there is allowed an importation of 4,000 quintals per year of dried and salted mutton called "castradina" at a duty of 5 lire per 100 kilograms, on condition of producing certificates of origin.

(*b*) By the treaty are admitted free of duty sardines, anchovies, and the like, packed in salt or in salt water.

(*c*) The cheese known as "brindza," made of goat and sheep milk, can be imported from Austria-Hungary up to 800 quintals per year on producing proper certificates of origin.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY XV.—*Animals, products, and remains of animals not comprised in other categories*—Continued.				
289	Glue:		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
	Strong	Quintal	4.00		
	Fish	do	10.00		
290	Feathers:				
	For ornaments, not worked	Kilogram	3.00		
	For ornaments, worked	do	35.00		
	For beds	do	Free		
291	Hair:				
	Not worked	Kilogram	3.00		
	Worked	do	10.00		
292	Sponges:				
	Common	do	20.00	15.00	
	Fine	do	100.00		
293	Corals:				
	Unworked	Kilogram	Free		
	Worked, not ornamented in gold	do	10.00		
294	Ivory, mother of pearl, tortoise, unworked	do	10.00		
295	Horns, bones, and the like, unworked	Ton	Free		
296	Compost or manure	do	Free		
	CATEGORY XVI.				
297	Mercery (Mercerie): Objects classed in the explanatory index (Repertorio) as mercerie, without indicating the kinds, pass as fine mercery when made in whole or in part of gilt paper painted or colored; of ivory, mother of pearl, or tortoise; of mosaic or of lava, and when they are garnished with beads, small pearls, and other like things of glass, or of crystal, or of silk, amber (true or false), of Russian leather, or, lastly when at all gilt or silvered. However, if these objects are set in precious metals they pass as silverware or jewelry. Objects classed by said index as common mercery, when formed exclusively of wood, pass as mercery of wood.				
	Common, except those of wood and wooden toys.	Quintal	66.00	60.00	
	Fine	do	140.00	120.00	
	Ordinary fans	do	90.00		
	Fine fans	do	150.00		
298	Musical instruments:				
	Organs for churches	Quintal	12.00		
	Portable organs	Each	5.00		
	Those with keys, and bellows, and pipes outside, large or small, intended as furniture for rooms, pay the same as vertical pianos.				
	Pianos, upright or horizontal	Each	80.00	80.00	
	Pianos, grand	do	150.00	80.00	
	Harmoniums, or fisarmoniche	do	20.00		
	Not named	do	2.00	1.00	
299	Instruments, optical, of calculation, of precision, of observation, chemical, medical, or surgical.	Quintal	30.00		
300	India rubber and gutta percha:				
	Raw, solid, or liquid	do	Free		
	Worked in braids, ribbons, and elastic tissues.	do	115.50	115.50	
	In other works comprising objects of dress and footware.	do	32.00	32.00	
301	Caps	Per 100	100,00		
302	Hats:				
	Of pure silk or mixed with other material, except those garnished for ladies.	Per 100	150.00		
	Of any other material except straw, and except those garnished for ladies.	Per 100	100.00	*a* 50.00	
	Of any quality, garnished for ladies	Per 100	500.00		

(*a*) The conventional duty of 50 lire is applied only to felt hats. Those of ordinary felt not garnished for use of peasants, when from the Trent, enter Italy at the reduced duty of 15 centimes each on production of proper certificates of origin.

SCHEDULE OF ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—Continued.

Number and letter.	Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.		Duties on exports.
			General.	Conventional.	
	CATEGORY XVI—Continued.		*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*	*Ital. lire.*
303	Artificial flowers	Kilogram	10.00	.....	.....
304	Materials for artificial flowers	....do	5.00	.....	.....
	By these are meant those things evidently intended to represent parts of flowers, as leaves, calix, petal, and the like.				
305	Frame-work for articles of fashion	Kilogram	1.00	.....	.....
306	Umbrellas:				
	These are classed exclusively with regard to their covering, and not with regard to their lining.				
	Of silk	Per 100	120.00	.....	.....
	Of any other material	....do	60.00	.....	.....
307	Materials for umbrellas	Quintal	30.00	.....	.....
308	Paint brushes with or without handles	....do	15.00	.....	.....
309	Objects of collection	....do	Free	.....	1 pr. ct.
	By these are meant objects not commercial, having a curious or scientific interest; samples of objects of natural history, like rare animals, living, stuffed, or otherwise preserved; empty shells, except mother of pearl; samples of minerals, except precious stones; dried trees or herbs, &c.; antiques, old armor; antique furniture, mosaics and works of lava detached, of all dimensions, and all that belongs to numismatics, like medals, cameos, and stones anciently cut. In objects of collections are not comprised objects of art anterior to the 19th century in marble, stone, or any other material, nor paintings, miniatures, designs on cloth, wood, walls, copper, paper, &c., the exportation of which is disciplined by special laws.				

SPECIAL TARIFF OF ITALY WITH FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL CRAIN, OF MILAN.

I have the honor to inclose herewith a list of duties on articles of French origin or manufacture imported into Italy as established by the treaty of commerce concluded between Italy and France November 3, 1881, and put in force the 16th ultimo.

The duties on articles exported from Italy to France prescribed by the fourth article of the treaty are also contained in this list, though they do not differ from the Italian export duties previously existing.

In my dispatch No. 46, of the 11th of March last, I inclosed to the department a schedule embracing the duties on imports into Italy both under the Italian general tariff and the treaty concluded between Italy and Austria-Hungary December 27, 1878.*

That schedule, together with the list herewith inclosed, comprehends the whole *régime* of Italian import and export duties.

DUNHAM J. CRAIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, June 26, 1882.

ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS OF FRENCH ORIGIN OR MANUFACTURE UNDER THE TREATY BETWEEN FRANCE AND ITALY IN FORCE ON AND AFTER MAY 16, 1882.

Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.
		Ital. lire.
CATEGORY I.—*Spirits, beverages, and oils.*		
Waters, mineral, nateral or artificial, and aërated waters	100 kilograms	0.50
Wines in casks, of all kinds (casks excluded)	Hectoliter	4.00
Same in bottles	....do	4.00
Spirits:		
Not sweetened or aromatized, comprising rum, aqua vitæ in casks (casks included).	Hectoliter	12.00
Sweetened or aromatized, in casks	....do	25.00
Of all kinds, in bottles of a capacity exceeding a half liter but not more than a liter.	The 100	25.00
Of every kind, in bottles of a capacity of one-half liter or less	....do	18.00
Oils, firm:		
Of olive	100 kilograms	3.00
Not named	....do	6.00
CATEGORY III.—*Chemical products, medicinal compounds, rosins, and perfumery.*		
Empty boxes for above articles	100 kilograms	60.00
Medicines compounded, not named, accepted by a faculty of medicine (without tare for the immediate covers).	....do	120.00
Gums and rosins, indigenous, crude	....do	1.00
Soaps:		
Common	100 kilograms	6.00
Perfumed	... do	12.00
Sealing wax	... do	30.00
Perfumery:		
With base of alcohol (without tare for the immediate cover, and not comprising the internal taxes).	100 kilograms	37.50
Not having alcohol as a base	....do	12.00

*Published in Commercial Relations for 1879, Vol. 2, p. 825.

ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS OF FRENCH ORIGIN, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.
CATEGORY IV.—*Coloring materials for dyeing and tanning.*		
Coloring matter derived from tar or from other bituminous substances:		*Ital. lire.*
In a dry state	100 kilograms	15.00
In paste or liquid	do	10.00
Coloring extracts from wood for dyeing, and other dyeing materials of all kinds.	do	12.50
Extracts from chestnut and other tannic juices, liquid or solid extracts from vegetables.		Free.
Coloring materials in cakes or in powder	100 kilograms	12.00
Shoe-blacking	do	5.00
CATEGORY V.—*Hemp, flax, jute, and other fibrous vegetables (exclusive of cotton).*		
Cordage, cables, also tarred	100 kilograms	3.00
Twine	do	4.00
Thread:		
Of flax, single, crude, washed or whitened	100 kilograms	11.53
Of hemp, single, tinted	do	17.10
Of hemp, twisted, crude, washed or bleached	do	23.10
Of hemp, twisted, tinted	do	34.65
Tissues:		
Of flax and hemp, not having over five threads of warp within a space of 5 millimeters, crude or white, not comprising the packing cloth.	100 kilograms	23.10
Of packing cloth, girths, and tubing	do	12.00
Tinted or made of tinted thread	do	38.00
Of flax and of hemp, having in the warp more than five threads in the space of 5 millimeters, crude, bleached or mixed with white.	do	57.75
Tinted or manufactured of tinted threads	do	90.00
Of flax or hemp, printed	do	115.00
Of flax or hemp, embroidered	do	250.00
Of flax, waxed for floors, and stuffs tarred and oiled	do	20.00
Of all other kinds	do	40.00
Knitted goods and braids of flax and of hemp	do	110.00
Buttons and ribbons of flax and hemp	do	100.00
Laces and tulles of flax and hemp	Per kilogram	80.00
Sewed articles (10 per cent. in addition to duty on tissues of which they are made).		
CATEGORY VI.—*Cottons.*		
Tissues, cotton:		
Of cotton, crude, which weigh 13 kilograms or more every 100 meters square, and present in warp and woof, in a square of 5 millimeters to the side, 27 elementary threads or less.	100 kilograms	57.00
More than 27 threads	do	64.00
Crude, which weigh 7 kilograms or more but less than 13 every 100 meters square, and present with woof and warp, in a square of 5 millimeters the side, 27 elementary threads of less.	do	66.00
More than 27 threads	do	75.00
Crude, which weigh less than 7 kilograms every 100 meters square, and present in woof and warp, in a square of 5 millimeters the side, 27 elementary threads or less.	do	80.00
More than 27 threads	do	100.00
Bleached (duties as on tissues crude and 20 per cent. in addition).		
Colored or tinted (duties as on tissues crude, with 35 francs in addition for every 100 kilograms).		
Printed (duties as on tissues, bleached, plus 70 francs per 100 kilograms).		
Waxed for floors and tissues tarred	100 kilograms	25.00
All other kinds	do	50.00
Buttons, knit goods, braids, and cotton covers	do	100.00
Galloons and cotton ribbons	do	90.00
Cotton velvet:		
Crude	do	120.00
White	do	140.00
Tinted	do	155.00
Sewed articles (duties of the article of which they are composed, plus 10 per cent.).		
CATEGORY VII.—*Wool, hair and leather.*		
Wool in mass, natural, washed, combed, tinted; waste of wool		Free.
Hair crude or tinted, and skins of all kinds		Free.
Hair curled, cords, and coarse work in hair	100 kilograms	8.00
Thread:		
Of wool or of leather, simple crude or white	do	50.00
Tinted	do	75.00
Of wool twisted, crude or white	do	60.00
Of wool twisted, colored	do	90.00

ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS OF FRENCH ORIGIN, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.
		Ital. lire.
CATEGORY VII.—*Wool, hair, and leather*—Continued.		
Mattresses of all kinds	100 kilograms	15.00
Tissues:		
Of carded wool	do	110.00
Of wool, carded, with warp composed entirely of cotton	do	93.50
Of wool, combed	do	170.00
Combed, with warp entirely composed of cotton thread	do	130.00
Embroidered	do	400.00
Felt, for hats	do	18.00
Felt, tarred, compressed, for soles, &c	do	7.00
Tissues:		
Of hair, for upholstering	do	30.00
Of every other kind	do	165.00
Knitted and braids	do	200.00
Galloons and ribbons	do	220.00
Buttons *	do	220.00 / 110.00
Laces and tulles	do	300.00
Covers of waste wool, of bands or strips, or selvage of cloth	do	60.00
Carpets of waste wool, of bands or strips, and of selvage of cloth	do	60.00
Covers and carpets of wool	do	110.00
Sewed articles (duties of the tissues of which they are made, plus 10 per cent. of those duties).		
CATEGORY VIII.		
Silk-worm eggs		Free.
Cocoons		Free.
Silk:		
Raw or worked, not tinted		Free.
Raw or worked, tinted		Free.
Sewing silk		Free.
Waste of silk:		
Combed	100 kilograms	10.00
Raw	do	Free.
Spun	do	50.00
Tinted	do	100.00
Velvet of silk	Per kilogram	6.50
Tissues:		
Of silk, black and lustrous	Per kilogram	4.00
Of silk, not named	do	4.75
Of waste silk	do	4.00
Of waste silk, or silk mixed with other materials in which silk waste enters in the proportion of from 12 to 50 per cent.	do	2.50
Ordinary, of waste of silk, or of hand-spun waste of silk (barallo) mixed or not with other materials.	do	2.00
Laces and tulles of silk	do	8.00
Laces and tulles of silk, worked	do	12.00
Tulles and galloons of silk or silk waste, with gold or silver, fine or false	do	10.00
Buttons covered with stuffs of silk or silk waste:		
If the stuff is plain	Per kilogram	1.00
Same if worked	do	4.00
Same if mixed with other material and plain	do	1.00
Same if mixed with other material and worked	do	2.00
Articles sewed (duty of the article of which composed, with 10 per cent. of additional of that duty).		
CATEGORY IX.—*Wood and straw.*		
Furniture not upholstered:		
In wood, curved, also varnished, with or without cane	Quintal	7.50
Other in common wood	do	13.00
Furniture of ordinary wood, upholstered	do	40.00
Furniture of ebony, veneered or inlaid or upholstered	do	40.00
Utensils and other works in common wood:		
Not polished nor colored	Quintal	Free.
Others	do	8.00
Road-carts, common wagons:		
For roads, common	Each	22.00
Of 2 wheels	do	33.00
Of 4 wheels and 4 springs	do	110.00
Of more than 4 springs	do	330.00
Braids:		
Of straw		Free.
Of bark, of broom, &c., for fine hats		Free.
For ordinary hats		Free.
For cords and other works		Free.
Hats with straw, not with garniture (comprising hats of palm, chip, &c.).	Per 100	10.00

* Those buttons only pay 220 lire whose tissue is covered with ornaments. All other buttons of stuffs pay as fine mercery, *i. e.*, fancy goods.

ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS OF FRENCH ORIGIN, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.
CATEGORY X.—*Paper and books.*		*Ital. lire.*
Paper, colored, gilt, or painted, finished	Per 100	20.00
Geographical maps	100 kilograms	Free.
Prints, lithographs	do	50.00
Books:		
Printed, sewed, or simply bound	100 kilograms	Free.
Bound in pasteboard	do	12.00
Bound in leather or parchment	do	20.00
In whatever other manner bound	do	100.00
Music, printed	do	5.00
CATEGORY XI.—*Leather or skins.*		
Skins:		
Morocco ed, in all colors	100 kilograms	75.00
Varnished	do	75.00
Varnished or morocco ed, cut in legs, soles, or strips for hats	do	75.00
Muffs, of skins:		
Fine	Per 100	600.00
Common	do	300.00
Gloves of skins of all kinds, also simply cut	Per 100 pairs	7.50
Boots and shoes and buskins	do	110.00
All other kinds	do	70.00
Valises	Each	2.00
Works in skins, tanned, without hair, not named	100 kilograms	50.00
CATEGORY XII.—*Minerals, metals, and manufactures thereof.*		
Cast-iron:		
In pig	100 kilograms	Free.
Worked, in pieces, crude	do	4.00
Pieces, molded, turned, &c	do	5.00
Iron, crude and steel, in pig	do	2.00
Iron or steel, not tempered:		
Plated or beaten (rods of more than 5 millimeters in diameter and bars of any dimension).	do	4.62
In rods (comprising wire of 5 millimeters at least of diameter or of width).	do	8.00
In plates of the thickness of 4 millimeters or more	do	4.63
Under 4 millimeters of thickness, and also in tubes	do	8.00
Iron and steel:		
Forged in anchors, axles of wagons, anvils, and other crude works	do	7.00
In railroad rails	do	3.00
Of second manufacture, iron works, simple	do	11.80
Garnished with other metals	do	14.00
Sheets of iron coated with tin, with zinc, or lead:		
Not worked	100 kilograms	10.75
Worked, also garnished with other metals	do	16.00
Steel:		
Tempered, in springs of any kind	100 kilograms	15.00
Otherwise worked	do	25.00
Knives for the arts and trades, and knives with wooden handles, common, not garnished.	do	16.00
Utensils and instruments for the arts and agriculture and trades, of iron, steel, or iron and steel.	do	10.00
Sickles and small sickles	do	10.00
Not named	do	12.00
Copper, brass, and bronze:		
In pig in cake, filings, and pieces	100 kilograms	4.00
In plates, cross-bars, leaves, plates, or tubes	do	10.00
In wires of less than 5 millimeters of thickness	do	15.00
Drawn in network, in crude work	do	15.00
In other works	do	25.00
In rods, in gilt or silvered wire	do	100.00
Gilt or silvered, covered with thread or tissue	do	100.00
Gilt or silvered, in other works	do	120.00
Woven stuffs:		
In iron or steel	100 kilograms	20.00
In brass and copper	do	20.00
Nickel, with its alloys with copper and zinc, in pieces, in cake, and scrap	do	4.00
Nickel:		
In leaves, cakes, and wire	100 kilograms	10.00
In other works	do	60.00
Tin and its alloys with lead and antimony:		
In cake, in pieces, and scraps	100 kilograms	4.00
Beaten in leaves of every kind	do	15.00
In other works	do	20.00
Mercury	do	10.00
Metals and metallic alloys not named:		
In crude state	100 kilograms	5.00
In works of any kind	do	100.00

ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS OF FRENCH ORIGIN, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.
		Ital. lire.
CATEGORY XII.—*Minerals, metals, and manufactures thereof.*		
Machines, by steam:		
Stationary, with or without boilers, and hydraulic motors	100 kilograms	6.00
Locomotives for railways and others, and machinery for navigation, with or without boilers.	do	8.00
Not named and parts of machines	do	6.00
Gasometers and their accessories	do	8.00
Apparatuses of copper and other metals to heat, refine, to distill, &c	do	10.00
Boilers, in iron or steel plates, with or without tubes	do	8.00
Freight railroad wagons	do	7.00
Passenger railroad carriages	do	13.00
Gold:		
Cylindered and polished and perforated	Per kilogram	10.00
Woven in silk	do	10.00
Beaten in sheets (without deducting weight of paper)	do	10.00
Silver:		
Cylindered, in sheet, and polished and perforated	Per kilogram	10.00
Woven in silk	do	10.00
Beaten in sheets (without deducting weight of paper)	do	5.00
Jewelry and table plate:		
Of gold	Per hectogram	14.00
Of silver or gilt	Per kilogram	5.00
Jewelry:		
Of gold	Per hectogram	7.00
Of silver or gilt	Per kilogram	10.00
Time-pieces:		
Watches in gold cases	Each	3.00
In cases of any other metal	do	1.00
Table clocks and wall clocks	do	5.00
Cylinder organs or music boxes	do	2.00
Movements of clocks or watches	do	0.25
Movements of table clocks and wall clocks	100 kilograms	50.00
Movements of clocks of towers or churches	do	20.00
Clock furniture	do	50.00
Coal and coke		Free.
Porcelain, earthenware, and glassware:		
Earthenware, common ware, in pitchers, glazed, or enameled	100 kilograms	1.10
Not named	do	1.50
Majolica, common, colored with dark varnish	do	8.00
Fine or white	do	12.00
Gilt or otherwise decorated	do	18.00
Of white porcelain	do	12.00
Of porcelain, gilt, or otherwise decorated	do	32.00
Plates of glass or crystal, not polished, of thickness of 4 millimeters or more.	do	3.75
For windows	do	8.00
Polished, without quicksilver	do	20.00
Looking-glasses in frames, and plates of looking-glasses, polished and silvered, without tare.	do	35.00
Works of glass and crystal, simply blown or melted, not colored nor ground nor cut.	do	7.00
Colored or ground	do	11.00
Bottles, common	Per 100	3.00
Demijohns	100 kilograms	3.00
Glasses and crystals enameled, cut in beads, or in pierced pieces	do	30.00
Glass in cake, or bars, or powder	do	5.00
Alimentary or vegetable products:		
Paste of wheat	100 kilograms	5.50
Sea biscuits or bread	do	5.50
Waste provisions		Free.
Oranges, lemons, even if in salted water	100 kilograms	2.00
Citrons		Free.
Fresh fruits not named		Free.
Dates		Free.
Pistachio-nuts, with or without shells	100 kilograms	8.00
Dried fruits, almonds, with or without shells		Free.
Nuts or small nuts		Free.
Oil-nuts not named		Free.
Not named except figs and grapes	100 kilograms	2.00
Fruits and vegetables, in vinegar, salt, or oil	do	8.00
In spirits of wine	do	40.00
Different seeds		Free.
Oil of palm or cocoanut		1.00
Cake of nuts or other material		Free.
Vegetable products and fresh vegetables		Free.
Not named		Free.
Fresh meats and poultry	100 kilograms	5.00
Salted, smoked, or otherwise prepared	do	20.00
Cooked	do	5.00
Extracts of meat and soup paste	do	40.00

ITALIAN DUTIES ON IMPORTS OF FRENCH ORIGIN, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	Unit.	Duties on imports.
		Ital. lire.
Sardines and the like, salted or in oil, even in boxes	100 kilograms	10.00
Fats of all kinds	do	1.00
Stearic acid	do	8.00
Stearic candles	do	15.00
Glue, strong	do	4.00
Fish glue	do	10.00
Feathers and hats:		
Feathers for ornament, worked	Per kilogram	15.00
Hats, worked	do	10.00
Sponges, corals, and composts:		
Sponges, common	100 kilograms	15.00
Fine	do	100.00
Corals, crude or worked		Free.
Composts		Free.
Mercery, common, and fans:		
Mercery, common, except those of wood and wooden toys	100 kilograms	60.00
Fine	do	100.00
Fans, fine	do	150.00
Common	do	90.00
Musical instruments:		
Church organs	do	12.00
Portable organs	Each	5.00
Pianos, horizontal or vertical	do	60.00
Grand piano-fortes	do	75.00
Harmoniums and the like	do	20.00
Instruments not named	do	1.00
Caps and hats:		
Caps	Per 100	100.00
Hats of pure silk or mixed with other material, except garnished hats for ladies.	do	150.00
Hats of any other material except of straw, of felt, and those garnished for ladies.	do	100.00
Hats of felt	do	50.00
Hats of any quality garnished for ladies	do	500.00
Objects of fashion:		
Artificial flowers	1 kilogram	6.00
Materials for artificial flowers	do	5.00
Frames for articles of fashion	do	1.00
Objects for collections		Free.

Italian export duties established by the treaty of commerce with France.

Boracic acid	100 kilograms	2.20
Marine and rock salt	Per ton	22.00
Tartar and dregs of wine	100 kilograms	2.20
Dyeing and tanning materials	do	27.00
Dyeing and tanning materials, ground	do	55.00
Silk, raw and worked	do	38.50
Waste of silk, raw or combed	do	8.80
Rags of all kinds	do	8.80
Skins, fresh and dry	Per 100	2.20
Minerals of iron	Per ton	22.00
Minerals of lead	do	2.20
Mineral of copper	do	5.50
Sulphur	100 kilograms	1.10
Seeds, various	do	1.10
Objects for collections	do	(*)

The Italian Government reserves the right to establish an export duty on articles for collections.

TARIFF OF NORWAY.

TRANSLATED AND FORWARDED BY CONSUL GADE, OF CHRISTIANA.

Royal proclamation concerning custom-house duties from July 1, 1881, for the Kingdom of Norway.

We, Oscar, by the grace of God King of Norway and Sweden, of the Goths and Vandals, make known:

Whereas the Storthing on the 13th and 14th June of this year has decreed as follows:

§ 1. From the 1st of July, 1881, the following duties on goods and vessels shall be paid to the treasury: (*a*) import duties; (*b*) storage duties; (*c*) export duties; (*d*) tonnage and light-house duties.

§ 2. Import duties, calculated in accordance with the annexed tariff A, shall be collected on foreign goods imported for consumption in this country, whether the importation be at private or public expense, as well as on all domestic goods which on export to foreign countries receive a drawback from the treasury on duties already collected.

Besides such goods as by special license or permission have been or hereafter may be imported free of duty, the following articles shall be exempt from duties:

(*a*) Ship's inventory, including cabin, galley, and similar inventories, in so far as their quality and quantity may be considered suitable, and they are to remain for use on the vessel on which they were imported from foreign countries. That these inventories have been exported from the country as transit goods in the same vessel in which they were found on its return to have been used does not make them liable to duty.

(*b*) Similar inventories which have come ashore loose or from vessels wrecked on the Norwegian coasts. Further inventories which have belonged to Norwegian vessels, which have been wrecked or legally condemned as unseaworthy in foreign countries, after the requisite vouchers have been approved by the treasury department.

(*c*) Ship provisions and other ship stores, brought in ships from foreign countries and remaining on board, provided they do not exceed what custom officers consider warranted by the size of the vessel, its crew and passengers, and the time it remains in port of arrival. If the goods and passengers it carries are destined for different places in the country, their consumption free of duty may continue until the vessel arrives at the place of final delivery for the goods and passengers brought from abroad, as well as during its stay there. If the vessel later clears for foreign countries, or goes to another place in the country without taking goods on board, the residue of provisions and other ship stores may remain on board for use without payment of duty, provided they do not exceed what the custom-house officers deem justified by the length of the proposed journey and other circumstances. But if the vessel goes to another inland port, after taking in goods for home ports, duty must be paid on the residue, provided it cannot be considered trifling. The same holds good when the crew is paid off, provided the residue be not put under lock and seal of the custom-house.

In regard to ship provisions on steamers plying between foreign and domestic ports, the rules here given are to be applied with such restrictions as the treasury department may find necessary to prevent possible abuses.

Coffee, tea, sugar, and sirup which are exported from the deposit stores may be delivered exempt of duty for use on board vessels destined to foreign countries, or for whale, walrus, or seal fisheries in the South Sea or in the Arctic Sea, as soon as the ship has cleared or the crew has been shipped, provided the custom officers find that the quantity of these provisions, clothing, and other traveling effects which have belonged to Norwegians deceased in foreign countries are also admitted free of duty when they bear traces of having been used.

(*d*) Clothing and other traveling requisites belonging to passengers, in so far as the custom officers may deem that their quality and quantity indicate that they are imported for personal use. When such effects are not brought by the passengers themselves, they are only admitted exempt of duty when the custom officers judge that they are not only imported for personal use, but also bear traces of having been used.

(*e*) Implements, carriages, riding equipments, household utensils, furniture, and similar articles, when they bear traces of having been used, and they are imported for the account and use of persons who have resided abroad at least one year, and

there have owned and used them. Furthermore, articles which may by inheritance have become the property of any one residing in this country, provided they bear traces of having been used.

(*f*) Samples, provided they do not appear destined for sale.

(*g*) Packing envelopes, containing goods, and which evidently appear of ordinary description. That material which is imported as dunnage in vessels is considered as envelopes, does not exceed what may be considered requisite, and on the condition that the master give a written declaration on trust that the goods are destined for the consumption of the crew and passengers, and shall not be smuggled into the country with his consent.

When the crew stays on shore while a vessel is undergoing repairs, so much of the provisions brought from foreign countries may be delivered free of duty as the custom officers may deem requisite for the use of the crew.

§ 3. Damaged dutiable merchandise, provided it be proved in the judgment of the custom officers or in some other manner that during the voyage, that is, after it has been loaded on the vessel and before it has been brought ashore, to have been damaged so as to have deteriorated in value one-quarter part or more, pays a duty of 10 per cent. of the proceeds of the auction, when sold at auction without having previously paid duty, and of 9 per cent. when sold after having paid duty. In both cases the fee and other expenses which the purchaser is bound to pay besides the auction bid are added to the proceeds of the auction.

Import duty will, however, be levied on the following articles at rates given below:

Coffee, duty paid	20 per cent
Coffee, duty unpaid	25 per cent.
Malt and sugar, duty paid	40 per cent.
Malt and sugar, duty unpaid	67 per cent.
Tobacco in leaf, and stems, duty paid	50 per cent.
Tobacco in leaf, and stems, duty unpaid	100 per cent.

These rules are not applicable to brandy.

In any case it depends on the owner or his agent, if he should prefer it, to pay the duty according to the ordinary rules.

§ 4. When a merchandise is composed of parts subject to different rates of duty, and it cannot be referred to any of the articles enumerated in the tariff of import duties, the person paying duty is at liberty to separate the parts and pay duty on them separately. But if such a separation cannot take place, or is not the wish of the person paying duty, the merchandise may be assessed according to the rule above mentioned, where the various parts are charged according to weight, and the custom-house officers judge themselves able to estimate their weight with sufficient exactitude. If none of the conditions exist for the separate assessment of the different parts, the merchandise is charged according to the part of which it principally consists, and where this cannot be decided by the custom-house, a duty of 10 per cent. is levied on the merchandise.

Objects which only serve to fasten or hold together the several parts of a whole, as nails, hinges, mountings, locks, &c., are not to be taken into consideration, but the goods are referred to that number of the tariff to which they would belong without these accessories. The same rule is also applicable to small ornaments.

The rules above given do not apply to goods classed under cotton, linen, silk, and wool.

§ 5. When goods are to be charged according to weight, their net weight is hereby understood (the weight of the goods themselves, without any cover or packing) unless otherwise prescribed in the tariff.

The net weight is generally determined by weighing the merchandise together with the envelope in which it was imported, and then deducting the tare prescribed for the merchandise at its number in the tariff. Should no tare be prescribed, the following rule is to be adopted:

For casks and boxes	12 per cent.
For bottles, glasses, flasks, jars, with or without casing	30 per cent.
For covers of metal	20 per cent.
For bast, straw, rushes, &c	3 per cent.
For bags and other packings of linen or burlap, single	2 per cent.
For bags and other packings of linen or burlap, double	3 per cent.

Should casks or boxes have covers of linen, matting, or anything similar, 3 per cent. of the gross weight is to be added to the tare prescribed for such packings without covers, and the total tare is to be deducted from the gross freight. If goods are imported in an extra covering of a cask or box outside the usual packing, the tare for which has been prescribed in the foregoing rules or in the annexed tariff, the outer covering may be removed before weighing. In other cases, when the merchandise is weighed with the covering, no part of this must be exempted from weighing, whether tare for the covering is to be allowed or not.

Net weighing shall take place—

1. When no tare rule is to be found either in the annexed tariff or in the above-given provisions.

2. Whenever the custom-house officers find it necessary to remove the packing to examine the goods, or regard, the packing as unusual.

3. When the person paying duty is dissatisfied with the tare prescribed in the annexed tariff or in the provisions above given; is the net weight ascertained in such a case, it shall not be allowed to calculate it by deducting the tare prescribed from the gross weight. When no tare is prescribed for the merchandise or the packing, and an investigation of the tare is impossible because the merchandise cannot be separated from its packing at the custom-house examination, the tare usual in trade is allowed, or, where that is not known, what the customs officers may find proper. No allowance can be made for any increase in weight or measure caused by accidental and unusual moisture, but if these goods have been saturated with water by accident at sea or other causes, the weight or measure is to be estimated by goods of the same kind in dry condition.

§ 6. Storage tax shall be paid on goods deposited in the customs warehouses if they remain in the same port of entry more than fifteen days, reckoned from the day the vessel has commenced to unload, when the goods are imported by sea. No charge is made for goods deposited for fifteen days or less. For every day more that the goods remain in the warehouses 30 öre is to be paid per cubic meter, the packing included. The minimum of tax on goods withdrawn at any one time shall be 40 öre.

§ 7. Duties on exports, levied in accordance with the annexed tariff B, are paid on goods exported to foreign countries, whether the exportation be made at private or public expense. The duty is paid on domestic as well as on foreign goods, but it is not so levied on foreign goods which have been warehoused as goods in transit, or have been under such custody of the custom-house that testimony can be given on their exportation as to the time and manner of their importation. In regard to foreign lumber, the treasury department may also order the control to be exercised in any other manner which it may deem satisfactory under the circumstances, and it may grant free entry in those cases where the lumber has undergone manufacture in the country.

The following articles are exempted from the prescribed duty on exports: 1. Ships' provisions and other ship stores carried by outgoing vessels, but not over and above what the customs officers deem justified by the size, the crew, and the passengers of the vessel, as well as the length of the intended voyage. 2. Goods found or manufactured in the province of Finmark, or there imported by fishermen in the open boats which they use at the fisheries, when exported to foreign countries from any port of entry in the province of Finmark or within three years from a port of entry in the province of Tromsö.

§ 8. Goods picked up at sea or in uninhabited districts in the polar regions, and thence directly imported are considered, on importation, as well as in case of re-exportation, as domestic goods picked up at the place where they are imported.

§ 9. Vessels carrying merchandise to or from the country pay tonnage and light-house duty of 80 öre per ton, with the following modifications: (*a*) Vessels engaged in any fisheries in the open sea or off the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Greenland, and uninhabited lands in the Arctic Sea are exempted from this. (*b*) Vessels plying directly between Norway and Sweden, when the whole cargo is loaded or unloaded in the two countries respectively, are subject to a duty of only 30 öre per ton. This duty will be abolished as soon as tonnage duties are no longer charged in Sweden on vessels engaged in this navigation. (*c*) Vessels coming from or going to places on the White or Arctic Sea are subject to a duty of only 40 öre per ton.

The following rules are also to be observed in the assessment of the tax:

(*a*) The tax will be charged on as many tons as are given in the vessel's register, when the customs officers regard it as fully loaded; in the opposite cases, the tax is assessed on as many tons as loaded or unloaded, but never on more tons than entered on the vessel's register. No tonnage or light-house tax is to be paid when the goods loaded or unloaded at any port of entry is less than one ton. The necessary rules for the valuation of the goods in tons will be given by the King.

(*b*) When a vessel on the same voyage recarries goods which have just been imported on said vessel and warehoused as goods in transit, no tonnage or light-house taxes are to be assessed on said goods, either on the entry or clearance of the vessel. The same rule applies to such goods when re-exported on another vessel, where the vessel on which they have been imported is so damaged as to be unable to continue the voyage. The same also applies to damaged goods sold from vessels entering a harbor of refuge, when the sale is conducted in accordance with rules given by the proper authorities.

(*c*) In the assessmment of the tonnage and light-house taxes of a vessel, deduction is made of the space occupied by the following articles:

1. Ice, sawdust, and stone hewn and unhewn, whether the stone contains metallic components or not, on the export of these articles.

2. Lumber, whenever an export duty of 3¼ öre per ton, according to tariff B, is to be charged.

3. Hay, straw, gypsum, manure, and sand, as well as packings in which goods have previously been exported from the country on their reimportation.

4. Traveling requisites belonging to passengers, ship provisions, and other articles for use on board the vessel during its proposed voyage; for instance, coal on steamers, and fishing implements. No compensation is allowed for the space occupied by these articles when the vessel is considered fully loaded.

§. 10. Foreign vessels and goods imported and exported on them are not subject to other or higher duties than Norwegian vessels, and goods imported or exported on them, unless the King should order the assessment of higher duties on the goods or tonnage of some foreign nation.

With regard to duties in the joint commerce of Norway and Sweden, the special laws on the subject are to be consulted.

§ 11. When foreign goods which, in accordance with special rules, have paid no duty, or a lower one than is usual at certain ports of entry, are carried to other home ports, an import duty, or the difference between that paid at the shipping port and that in force at the arrival port, is to be collected.

If a product, manufactured from a foreign merchandise at any place in this country where it may enter, either exempt of duty or subject to a lower rate of duty than the usual one, is carried to any other domestic port where the merchandise employed in its manufacture is subject to duty or to a higher rate of duty than has been already paid, the product shall be liable at the arrival port to the import duty there assessed on the merchandise from which it has been manufactured, with the deduction of the duty which may have been paid at the port of shipment.

An exception to these rules is made in case of the grain brought home from places in the province of Finmark by fishermen in the open boats which they use at the fisheries.

§ 12. Import duty shall be refunded on samples which are re-exported to foreign countries in the same condition as imported when this proviso was made on their importation. The treasury department can also grant the refundment of import duty collected on raw materials and accessory materials used in the manufacture of goods which are exported to foreign countries, as well as on other assessed goods, according to the circumstances, when they are re-exported in unchanged condition.

Export duty, storage, and light-house taxes are to be refunded when the proposed voyage is not completed and the goods loaded are again brought ashore in this country. When a master, on clearing, has paid storage and light-house taxes at a higher rate than that prescribed at navigation at the place where the master has discharged the cargo, the surplus of payment shall be refunded, provided the master make an application to the custom-house in question, accompanied by adequate information, within a year from the clearance.

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES AND RATES OF TARE.*

Number.		Import duty.
	A.	*Crowns.*
1	Alum	Free.
2	Ammonia and salts thereof	Free.
	Hooks or fishhooks. (*See* Manufactured metals.)	
	Anise and anise star. (*See* Spices.)	
	Antimony. (*See* Metals.)	
	Apothecary articles, that is, all articles which only druggists are allowed to sell in retail, not otherwise provided for:	
	a. containing spirits, as brandy	
3	*b.* other apothecary articles	Free.
	Arrowroot, pulverized. (*See* Sago.)	
	Asbestos. (*See* Stone and manufactures thereof.)	
4	Ashes of wood and other parts of plants	Free.
5	Asphaltum, unmixed or mixed with rosin, sand, &c., and manufactures thereof	Free.
	B.	
6	Boats with tackle	Free.
	Wood for hoops. (*See* Wood and wooden goods.)	
	Ballast—shovels, as implements and tools of iron	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Balsam:	*Crowns.*
	a. Riga balsam, as brandy	
	b. Which only apothecaries are allowed to sell. (*See* Apothecary goods.)	
	c. Other natural balsams as turpentine. (*See* Gums and resins.)	
7	Barks and extracts thereof for tanneries of all kinds, and birch bark	Free.
8	Bast and fibers of cocoa	Free.
	Manufactured:	
	a. Hats. (*See* letter H.)	
9	*b.* Mats for packings	Free.
10	*c.* Rope and cord	Free.
11	*d.* Other manufactures thereof per kilogram	0. 10
	Bone, teeth of the elephant, walrus, &c.:	
12	*a.* Raw, crushed or ground	Free.
	b. Manufactured:	
	Buttons. (*See* letter K.)	
13	Other manufactures thereof, per kilogram	0. 35
14	Bone coal, calcined ivory, and hartshorn	Free.
	Bluestone, as vitriol	
15	Bleaching powder	Free.
16	Flowers, natural, and plants, roots, and bulbs	Free.
17	Artificial, per kilogram	3. 60
	Parts thereof.	
	Leaves of paper, as pressed paper	
18	Other, per kilogram	3. 60
19	Plumbago or black lead	Free.
20	Crucibles	Free.
21	Black lead pencils, red lead pencils, and other pencils of chalk, pencils not mounted, including boxes, cases, paper, and similar envelopes, per kilogram	0. 35
	Ashes of lead or oxide of lead. (*See* Dyeing articles No 4.)	
22	Ink and ink powder, the weight of the innermost packing included, per kilogram	0. 10
	Leaf, gold and silver. (*See* Metals.)	
	Buckwheat and grit, and flour thereof. (*See* Grain.)	
	Cotton and cotton goods:	
23	1. Cotton	Free.
24	2. Wadding	Free.
	3. Yarn:	
25	*a.* Not dyed, per kilogram	0. 07
26	*b.* Other, per kilogram	0. 20
	Tare for No. 3 *a* and *b*: On rolls or spools of wood or metal, 50 per cent	
	Obs.—Cord made like rope-maker's work is dutiable as yarn	
27	4. Sail cloth and other undyed, unbleached manufactures, the square half-meter of which weighs 180 grams or more, per kilogram	0. 07
28	5. Fishing nets, as the material thereof, with addition of 10 per cent	
29	6. Materials, the square half-meter of which weighs 100 grams or more; bleached, printed, dyed, or woven of dyed yarn, per kilogram	0. 27
30	7. Ribbons and tapes, as well as ribbons and materials interwoven with caoutchouc, gutta-percha and belts thereof, per kilogram	1. 07
31	8. Diaper and damask, likewise kerchiefs, if not dutiable under a higher rate, per kilogram	0. 60
	(In bond, 100 kilograms)	
32	9. Knit goods, knitted, crocheted, netted as well as dyed, and not dyed, per kilogram	1. 07
	10. Lacework. (*See* Letter P.)	
33	11. Fronts for shirts, sewn or woven, as the material with addition of 10 per cent	
34	12. Open or clear, such as blonde, bobbinet, lace and gauze, per kilogram	2. 50
35	13. Other open or clear goods, either embroidered or interwoven with patterns, figures, stripes, or squares (except embroidery on canvas) per kilogram	1. 76
	Obs.—Goods shall be considered as open or clear, if between the single threads outside the embroidery or the interwoven close figures, stripes, &c., intervals can be distinguished of a thickness of at least one thread, or, if this be impossible, if a piece ½ meter square shall weigh only 20 grams or less.	
36	14. Other cotton goods:	
	a. Printed, per kilogram	1. 07
	(In bond, 90 kilograms.)	
	Obs.—Goods of one color shall be dutiable as wholly single-colored or bleached stuffs, even if the color shall have been applied by printing or rolling.	
37	*b.* Of several colors, not printed, per kilogram	0. 53
	(In bond, 150 kilograms.)	
38	*c.* Entirely of one color or bleached, per kilogram	0. 27
	(In bond, 225 kilograms.)	
39	*d.* Unbleached, including wicks, per kilogram	0. 13
	(In bond, 450 kilograms.)	
	Obs.—Goods made of cotton in combination with flax, or with such spinning materials as are treated as flax, shall be dutiable as cotton goods; goods of cotton, in combination with wool, shall be dutiable as woolen goods; goods of cotton, in combination with silk. (*See* Silk goods.)	
40	Borax and acid, boracic	Free.
	Meat extracts in cakes, as provisions, under Animals	
41	Fire engines	Free.
	Letter-cases, pocketbooks, portfolios, portemonnaies, or purses, cigar-cases:	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
42	Of skin, or oil-cloth, or linen, per kilogram	0.80
	Of paper, as manufactured paper	
43	Spectacles, eye-glasses, microscopes, burning-glasses, mounted, with or without cases, per kilogram	0.35
	Trusses. (*See* under Skin.)	
	Bronze powder. (*See* Metals.)	
	Burning-glasses. (*See* Spectacles.)	
	Brandy of all kinds:	
44	1. In bottles or jars, without regard to the strength, per liter	1.35
45	2. In other envelopes, of strength 100 per cent. per kilogram	1.80
	For each half per cent. under 100 per cent., to 90 per cent., inclusive, 1.2 ore per kilogram is to be deducted; for each half per cent. below 90 per cent., to 85 per cent., inclusive, 1.1 ore is further deducted; for each half per cent. below 85 per cent., to 75 per cent., inclusive, 1.05 ore is further to be deducted; for each half per cent., below 75 per cent., to 65 per cent., inclusive, 0.95 ore is further to be deducted; for each half per cent. below 65 per cent., to 45 per cent., inclusive, 0.9 ore is further to be deducted; for each half per cent. below 45 per cent., to 25 per cent., inclusive, 0.8 ore per kilogram is further to be deducted; and for each half per cent. below 25 per cent., 0.75 ore per kilogram is further to be deducted. The strength will be measured by the brandy-tester at any time authorized by the King. If sugar or anything else has been added to the article, rendering the measurement of the tester incorrect, duty shall be assessed as on brandy of 100 per cent. strength.	
	(Tare, 16 per cent.)	
46	3. Ethers and naphthas, per kilogram	2.60
47	4. Vinegar ether, per kilogram	1.
48	5. Other spirituous and other spirits of ether, per kilogram	1.80
49	6. Smelling waters, including aromatic vinegar, the weight of the nearest packing included, per kilogram	1.
	7. Varnish and polish. (*See* under letter F.)	
	Obs. 1.—If mixtures containing spirits are entered under other names in the tariff, the treasury department may order that the article shall be assessed as brandy.	
	Obs. 2.—The treasury department may permit that brandy for technical use may be imported free of duty, on the condition that it may be by some addition rendered unfit for use as a beverage.	
50	Bread of wheat, or of wheat mixed with other cereals, hard or soft, per kilogram	0.03.3
51	Of rye and other kinds of grain, per kilogram	0.02
	Belly-bands, woven. (*See* under Linen goods.)	
	Bottom pieces for casks, as staves. (*See* under Wood and wooden goods.)	
	Furs, manufactured. (*See* Skins.)	
52	Suspenders, and parts thereof, of all kinds, per kilogram	1.73
	Berries, eatable, not otherwise provided for, as fruits.	
	Coopers' goods. (*See* Wood and wooden goods.)	
	Books. (*See* Paper.)	
	Beans, and flour of beans. (*See* Grain.)	
	Brushes:	
	a. Of bristles or other hair. (*See* Hair.)	
	b. Of rushes, twigs, and other fibers of plants. (*See* Brooms.)	
	C.	
	Cocoa:	
53	Beans, per kilogram	0.12
	(In bond, 600 kilograms.)	
54	Preparations of cocoa, in cakes, blocks, or otherwise, chocolate, per kilogram	0.40
	Camptulicon. (*See* Cork.)	
	Bullons, or gold laces, under Metals.	
	Curry powders. (*See* Spices.)	
	Cassia lignea. (*See* Spices.)	
55	Catechu, of all kinds, including terra japonica and gambia	Free.
	Prunes. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Cement. (*See* under Stone.)	
56	Champignons, truffles, and other eatable mushrooms, per kilogram	0.36
	Chloride of lime, as bleaching powder.	
	Chocolate. (*See* Cocoa.)	
	Chicory root. (*See* Roots.)	
	Cider or must. (*See* Juices.)	
	Lemons, and lemon peel. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Lemon juice. (*See* Juices.)	
57	Acid, citric (acidum citricum), and acid, tartaric (acidum tartaricum)	Free.
58	Coloring for brandies and other beverages, per kilogram	0.53
	(Tare, in casks, 16 per cent.)	
	D.	
	Dates. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Jackscrews. (*See* Machinery.)	
	Dragon's blood. (*See* Gums.)	
	Ladies' ornaments. (*See* Clothing.)	
	Diamonds. (*See* Precious stones, under Stones.)	
	Crucibles of clay. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
	Crucibles of plumbago. (*See* Crucibles of black lead.)	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
59	Divi divi	Free.
60	Oakum	Free.
	Dolls' clothes. (*See* Toys.)	
	Down. (*See* Feathers.	
	Feather beds. (*See* Mattresses.)	
	Animals, and provisions made therefrom:	
	1. Animals:	
61	*a.* Horses and foals	Free.
62	*b.* Other animals	Free.
	2. Provisions:	
63	*a.* Fish, pickled, prepared with spices, and preserved in oil, lobsters and oysters, also in hermetically closed and air-tight vessels, and in the latter case including the weight of the packings, smoked, and caviar, per kilogram	0.40
64	*b.* Fish, other	Free.
65	*c.* Sausages and tongue, per kilogram	0.20
66	*d.* Rolled sausages	Free.
67	*e.* Corned beef, Australian and American fresh beef in hermetically closed and air-tight vessels, per kilogram	0.10
	3. Other articles of food prepared from animals likewise in hermetically closed or air-tight vessels, pies and soups (boullion), per kilogram	0.40
	Obs.—In both cases the weight of the vessels shall be included in the weight dutiable.	
	f. Meat and bacon of all kinds:	
68	Smoked, per kilogram	0.20
69	Other meats and bacon	Free.
	E.	
	Vinegar:	
70	*a.* In casks, per kilogram	0.16
	(Tare, casks, 16 per cent.)	
71	*b.* In bottles or jars, per liter	0.17
	Grits of wheat. (*See* Grain.)	
	Elephant's teeth and ivory. (*See* Bone.)	
	Ivory calcined. (*See* Bone coal.)	
	Pease and flour thereof. (*See* grain.)	
72	Cases with shaving apparatus, furnished dressing-cases, work-boxes and work-baskets, or boxes and other cases with implements for sewing, writing, or the toilet or similar, per kilogram	0.80
	F.	
	Crockery ware. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
	Dyes and paints:	
73	1. White lead and oxide of zinc, per kilogram	0.06.7
	(In bond, 1,800 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks, 10 per cent.; packing of metal, 8 per cent.)	
74	2. Cochineal and indigo, per kilogram	0.25
	(In bond, 225 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, for indigo in casks and boxes, 25 per cent.)	
75	3. Paints ground in oil, per kilogram	0.06.7
	(In bond, 1,800 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks, 12 per cent.; packings of metal, 8 per cent.)	
76	4. Other dyes and paints, including black bone, ground chalk, dye-woods and plant roots, and other parts of plants used for dyeing not otherwise provided for	Free.
	Fat and tallow:	
77	1. Stearine (stearic acid), margarine (margaric acid), palmitin (palmitin acid), paraffine, and other fat or oleaginous substances from which the oleine has been wholly or partially extracted, spermacets	Free.
78	2. Candles thereof, per kilogram	0.13
	3 Lard and fat. (*See* Butter.)	
79	4. Tallow and fatty substances not otherwise provided for	Free.
80	5. Candles made thereof, per kilogram	0.13
81	Fat lye, train lye, deyra, grease (including residue from the preparation of paraffine oil and petroleum and the so-called resin oil)	Free.
82	Varnish, drying oils, polish, per kilogram	0.06.7
	(Tare, packing of metal, 8 per cent.)	
	Obs.—A mixture of spirits with lacs, dyes and shell gums, and similar, shall be assessed as polish or varnish when the spirits are understood not to be more than four-fifths of the weight of the merchandise; in other cases assessed as brandy.	
	Figs. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Felt. (*See* Linens, Wool, or Hair.)	
	For sheathing or roofing with asphaltum, tarred or prepared in a similar way, as paper No. 4.	
	Fish. (*See* Animals.)	
	Fish-hooks, as hooks. (*See* Iron, under metals.)	
	Feathers and down:	
	1. In bed-clothes. (*See* Mattresses.)	
83	2. For beds, quilts, and downs, per kilogram	0.33.3
84	3. Feathers, ornamental, per kilogram	3.00

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Bacon. (*See* Animals, &c.)	
	Foil, tin-foil, and mirror-foil. (*See* Tin, under metals.)	
	Foil of other kinds, as gold trimmings. (*See* metals.)	
	Fruits.	
	1. Fresh:	
85	*a.* Oranges of all kinds, as common oranges, citrons, lemons, bitter oranges, per kilogram	*Crowns.* 0.20
	(Tare, boxes, 22 per cent.)	
86	*b.* Apples, pears, and grapes	Free.
87	*c.* Other fruits and edible berries, per kilogram	0.04
	2. Dried:	
88	Plums, including French prunes and other prunes, per kilogram	0.16.7
	(In bond, 700 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks and boxes, 10 per cent.)	
89	Currants, per kilogram	0.23
	(In bond, 450 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks, 12 per cent.; boxes, 16 per cent.)	
90	Figs and cakes of figs, per kilogram	0.23
	(In bond, 600 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks, boxes, and cylinders, 15 per cent.; caskets and mats, 6 per cent.)	
91	Raisins, per kilogram	0.30
	(In bond, 450 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks, 14 per cent.; boxes, 20 per cent.; earthen jars, 30 per cent.)	
92	Oranges and orange peel, per kilogram	0.13
93	Other fruits, not otherwise provided for in the tariff, per kilogram	0.16.7
	3. Salted or pickled in vinegar:	
94	*a.* Tamarinds, also if vinegar should not have been added, per kilogram	0.10
	(Tare, casks and boxes, 16 per cent.; earthen jars, 30 per cent.)	
95	Other, per kilogram	0.40
	(Tare, glasses, 30 per cent.)	
96	4. Fruits and fruit peel crystallized, preserved in sugar and brandy, juices of fruits and berries prepared with sugar, and other preserves not otherwise provided for, per kilogram	0.60
	(Tare, glasses, without other envelope, 30 per cent.)	
	Fringes of gold or silver, as gold trimmings. (*See* Metals.)	
	Seeds, viz:	
97	*a.* Linseed, per 100 kilograms	0.58
	(In bond, 20,000 kilograms.)	
98	*b.* Rape seed, per 100 kilograms	0.55
	(In bond, 20,000 kilograms.)	
99	*c.* Canary seed, per kilogram	0.13
100	*d.* Other seed, not otherwise provided for	Free.
	Birds. (*See* Animals.)	
101	Matches (lucifers), also of other material than wood	Free.
	Percussion caps:	
102	*a.* For guns, including the weight of the boxes, per kilogram	1.33
103	*b.* Other	Free.
	G.	
104	Galls and gall nuts	Free.
	Gelatine. (*See* Glue.)	
	Guns. (*See* Metals.)	
	Gypsum and casts of plaster. (*See* Stone, &c.)	
105	Yeast	Free.
106	Fertilizers	Free.
	Glass and glassware:	
107	1. Bottles and flasks of all kinds (not including decanters, cast and cut bottles)	Free.
	2. Plates or sheets:	
108	*a.* With foil, per kilogram	0.23
109	*b.* Without foil, cut and colored, gilded, varnished, engraved, and figured, per kilogram	0.13
	(Tare, for No. 2, *a* and *b*, boxes, 25 per cent.)	
110	*c.* Other glass, in plates or sheets, per kilogram	0.06
111	3. Sky-lights, tiles of glass, milk-pans, fishing-nets, floats, glasses for preserves	Free.
112	4. Vases for chemical purposes, retorts, caps for telegraph poles	Free.
113	5. Optical glasses (including burning-glasses) not set, beads ornaments not set, glass galls, enamel not manufactured, glass paste, fragments of glass	Free.
	6. Beads, ornaments, and beads set in gold, silver, or aluminium shall be weighed together with the settings, and be charged like them.	
	In other metals. (*See* Jewelry.)	
114	7. Other glassware, per kilogram	0.27
115	8. Bottles with plaited cover, which cannot be considered as envelope, per kilogram	0.27
116	Globes, including telluriuno, lunarium, and similar articles, with or without stands	Free.
117	Glycerine	Free.
118	Glycerine, dip	Free.
	Slate-pencils. (*See* Stone, &c.)	
	Grits. (*See* Grain.)	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
119	Grass:	
	Manufactured, as twigs	
	Otherwise manufactured	
	Trimmings of metal. (*See* metals, &c.)	
	Carpets, painted or printed on oil-cloth. (*See* Textile goods.)	
	Gums and resins:	
120	1. Pitch from coal and other black pitch	Free.
121	2. Caoutchouc and gutta-percha	Free.
122	3. Gums and resins, not especially enumerated, including turpentine	Free.
	4. Other gums and resins, liquefied, or dissolved, as varnish	
	5. Caoutchouc and gutta-percha manufactured:	
	a. In sheets, including caoutchouc paper, soles, cords or straps, thread, rings, cables, blocks, buffers, hoses, tubes, rollers, telegraph caps, floor mats, and soles for horseshoes, also when in combination with threads or texture	Free.
124	*b.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0.93
	(In bond, 120 kilogram.)	
	H.	
	Designs, (*See* Paintings.)	
	Hair and manufactures thereof:	
125	1. Curled hair, including drawn horse and cattle hair, also if not entirely prepared	Free.
126	2. Bristles and hair of all kinds	Free.
	3. Yarn, in or without combination with other spinning materials, as woolen yarn	
	4. Brushes:	
127	*a.* Mounted in wood or metal, per kilogram	0.13
128	*b.* Mounted in bone, horn, or other materials, including quills and cards, per kilogram	0.46
	5. Other manufactures thereof, in or without combination with other spinning materials:	
129	*a.* Of human hair, including wig-maker's goods	Free.
130	*b.* Carpets and rugs of cattle hair, per kilogram	0.27
131	*c.* Felt of cattle hair, not dyed or printed	Free.
	d. Of horse hair:	
	Hats and caps. (*See* Hats.)	
132	Other goods, including sieves, seatings, and petticoats, per kilogram	0.80
	e. Otherwise, as woolen goods:	
	Hair-pins. (*See* Metals.)	
	Shot. (*See* Lead, under Metals.)	
	Straw. (*See* under S.)	
	Hemp. (*See* Flax, etc.)	
	Flax-seed. (*See* Seeds.)	
	Gloves. (*See* Skins.)	
	Resin. *See* Gums.)	
133	Harrows	Free.
	Hats and caps:	
134	1. Hats for ladies and children, of silk or of material consisting of silk in combination with other materials; likewise other hats for ladies and children, if ornamented with flowers and feathers, per piece	1.50
135	2. Hats and caps of all kinds of felt, or of woolen materials (knitting excepted), made up or otherwise covered with floss-silk, irrespective of the under substance, likewise if made up or otherwise, folding hats, also hats or caps in part ornamented with fur, all with or without paste-board boxes, per piece	0.40
136	3. Other hats or caps, provided they cannot be referred to knitting goods, per piece	0.20
	Hat-forms, hat-crowns, and hat-brims of "rolled-book" or other starched material, in or without combination with wire, as hat-forms of chips. (*See* Manufactures of chips.)	
	Vegetables, edible:	
137	1. Green and salted	Free.
	2. Prepared in hermetically closed vessels. (*See* Provisions.)	
138	3. Other, per kilogram	0.20
	Hatchets. (*See* Metals.)	
	Grits of millet. (*See* Grits of wheat, under Grain.)	
139	Honey, per kilogram	0.20
140	Horn:	
	a. Not manufactured, ground or in strips	Free.
	b. Manufactured:	
	Buttons. (*See* letter K.)	
141	Other manufactures, per kilogram	0.35
	Hides. (*See* Skins.)	
	Caps. (*See* Hats.)	
142	Hops, per kilogram	0.47
	(In bond, 250 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, packing of linen, 4 per cent.)	
143	Hops, Spanish	Free.
	Isinglass. (*See* Glue.)	
144	Whalebone, cut	Free.

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Whale-fat (spermaceti). (*See* Fats and tallows.)	
	Walrus teeth. (*See* Bone.)	
	Twine. (*See* Rope-maker goods.)	
	Hooks and eyes. (*See* Metals.)	
	Hay, as grass.	
	I.	
		Crowns.
	Ginger, white and brown, ground and not ground. (*See* Spices.)	
145	Preserved, per kilogram	1.00
	(Tare, jars, 45 per cent.)	
	Instruments:	
	1. Musical:	
	a. Piano-fortes:	
146	Grand, per piece	60.00
147	Square or upright, per piece	40.00
148	*b.* Guitars, violins, tenor violins, violoncellos, and bass violins, per piece	1.00
149	*c.* Flutes, hautboys, and clarionets, per piece	0.50
150	*d.* Bows for musical instruments, whether imported in connection with an instrument or otherwise, per piece	0.20
151	*e.* Organs, ad valorem	8 per cent.
	f. Harmoniums:	
152	With pedals, per piece	40.00
153	Without, per piece	20.00
154	*g.* Other musical instruments, per kilogram	0.35
155	*h.* Parts of musical instruments (strings excepted), per kilogram	0.15
	2. Other instruments dutiable according to material.	
	Black lead powder. (*See* Black lead.)	
	Earth, clay, and manufactures thereof:	
156	A. Earth and clay not otherwise provided for in the tariff	Free.
	B. Manufactures of earth and clay:	
157	*a.* Crucibles, mortars, evaporating and grinding vessels, retorts, balloons, and crecurbits, flags, telegraph caps (isolators), and vessels for galvanic elements, tubes for conducting water and heat, tubes for closets and drains, whether made of china or of other species of earth or clay	Free.
	b. Bowls of pipes, &c., and clay pipes. (*See* Pipes.)	
158	*c.* Stoves of all kinds of earth or clay	Free.
	d. Other manufactures of earth or clay:	
	1. Brick manufactures:	
159	Bricks of all kinds	Free.
160	Tiles, glazed, per 1,000 pieces	8.00
161	Tiles, not glazed	Free.
	Other, as pottery	
	2. Pottery, common:	
162	Not glazed or painted	Free.
163	Other, per kilogram	0.03.3
164	3. Crockery ware, per kilogram	0.07
	(Tare for Nos. 2 and 3, baskets, 25 per cent.; casks and boxes, 30 per cent.)	
	4. Stone-ware (the substance showing some melting without being transparent):	
	Fine (with white and whitish substance), including "iron, stone," and "wedge wood" so styled as crockery ware.	
	Common (substance, not white or whitish) as pottery.	
165	5. Porcelain or biscuit per kilogram	0.23
	(Tare: baskets 25 per cent.: casks and boxes, 30 per cent.)	
	6. Terralith, terracotta and other acticles which do not enter in any of the classes 1 to 5, shall be dutiable as crockery ware.	
	K.	
	Cabbage. (*See* Vegetables.)	
	Swords or sabers. (*See* Iron, under Metals.)	
166	Coffee, per kilogram	0.40
	(In bond, 240 kilograms.)	
	(Tare: bags, single, 1½ per cent.; double, 2½ per cent.)	
167	Extracts of coffee	40 per cent.
168	Roast, all kinds of roast plants, intended to be used as coffee, per kilogram	0.60
169	Coffee-mills with wooden box, per piece	0.40
	Of iron. (*See* Metals.)	
170	Cakes, including all kinds of pastry, prepared with vanilla, lemon-peel, honey, sugar, and sirup, and similar articles, per kilogram	0.40
	Lime, burned, and lime and chalk.	
	Lime-stone. (*See* Stone.)	
	Combs, according to material.	
	Cinnamon, cinnamon flowers and cassia lignia. (*See* Spices.)	
171	Capers, including the weight of the innermost envelope, per kilogram	1.60
172	Cards and card bands of all kinds	Free.
173	Burrs for cards	Free.
	Cardamom. (*See* Spices.)	
174	Cards	Free.
175	Charts, astronomical, maps, and sea charts	Free.
176	Chestnuts	Free.

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
	Caviar. (*See* Provisions, under Animals.)	
177	Telescopes and microscopes, per kilogram	0.35
	Meats. (*See* Animals, &c.)	
	Bran. (*See* Grain.)	
178	Rags, old	Free.
	Clothing and ornaments, not otherwise provided for in the tariff, and parts thereof, made up by sewing.	
	1. Impregnated or coated with oil, varnish, gums, or like substances, or manufactured of such materials:	
179	*a.* When the material is wholly or in part made of silk, per kilogram	2.93
180	*b.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0.73
181	2. Other clothing and ornaments, as well as parts thereof made up by sewing, shall pay the same rate of duty as the chief substance of the outer material, and in addition thereto 10 per cent.: the same rate of duty shall be paid on tamboured and embroidered articles for clothing or ornaments, as veils, sleves, wristbands, when each article of dress is imported separately, also when not entirely finished for use. When the clothing is made of a material, subject to different rates of duty, according its weight of a square half meter, and the weight cannot be estimated with sufficient exactitude, the clothing shall be considered made of the material, which is subjected to the highest rate of duty. The additional duty shall not be imposed on clothing ready-made of knit goods, also made up with buttons, linings, strings, and like, also of a material subject to a higher rate of duty than the clothing itself.	
	3. When the clothing is only stemmed or bound.	
	Hoofs of cattle. (*See* Horn.)	
	Buttons:	
	1. Covered with cloth or thread. (*See* Haberdashery.)	
182	2. Other buttons and button molds, including the weight of paper, paste-board boxes, per kilogram	0.35
	Verdigris. (*See* Vitriol.)	
	Engravings, lithographs, and similar goods, not framed. (*See* Paper.)	
	Framed. (*See* Frames.)	
	Bast of cocoanuts and manufactures thereof. (*See* Bast.)	
183	Cocoanuts, per piece	0.07
	Confectioners' goods. (*See* Cakes.)	
184	Corals, crude or not manufactured	Free.
	Manufactured, as cut and polished stones.	
	Currents (*See* Fruits.)	
185	Cork wood	Free.
186	In corks for bottles, not mounted, and cork-soles	Free.
187	In corks for bottles, mounted, per kilogram	0.70
188	In squares in combination with other materials, including camptulicon and similar materials, per kilogram	0.13
	Grain:	
	1. Not ground:	
189	*a.* Buckwheat, per 100 kilograms	0.20
190	*b.* Barley, per 100 kilograms	0.22
	(In bond, 15,000 kilograms.)	
191	*c.* Beans, peas, and lentils, per 100 kilograms	0.36
	d. Without pods, as flour of these articles.	
192	*e.* Oats	Free.
193	*f.* Wheat, per 100 kilograms	0.22
	(In bond, 15,000 kilograms.)	
194	*g.* Maize, per 100 kilograms	0.20
195	*h.* Malt of all kinds, ground and not ground, per kilogram	0.23.5
196	*i.* Rye, per 100 kilograms	0.20
	(In bond, 15,000 kilograms.)	
	At the ports of Hammerfest, Vardö, and Vadsö	Free.
	2. Ground.	
	a. Grits:	
197	Of Buckwheat, 100 kilograms	0.44
198	Of barley and pearl barley, per 100 kilograms	0.44
199	Of oats	Free.
200	Of wheat, including Semouille and Cabanca grits; likewise grits of wheat, millet, and manna, per kilogram	0.13
	b. Flour:	
201	Of buckwheat, beans, peas, lentils, and maize, per 100 kilograms	0.40
202	Of barley, per 100 kilograms	0.33.3
203	Of oats	Free.
204	Of wheat, per 100 kilograms	1.25
205	Of rye, per 100 kilograms	0.33.3
	At the ports of Hammerfest, Vardö and Vadsö	Free.
206	*c.* Bran	Free.
	Grain, mixed of different kinds, shall pay duty as that which is subject to the highest rate.	
	Cosmetics. (*See* Pomades.)	
207	Brooms and brushes of twigs, rush and other fibres of plants, per kilogram	0.05
208	Chalk, white and red, not manufactured	Free.
	Ground. (*See* Paints.)	
209	For drawing, crayons, chalk pencils. (*See* Pencils)	Free.

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Clay pipes. (*See* Pipe bowls.)	*Crowns.*
210	Gunpowder, cartridges (with or without percussion caps), fire-works	Free.
	Spices:	
211	1. Pimento, anise, anise-star, ginger, not preserved, cloves, stems of cl pepper of other kinds than cayenne pepper, all as well ground as not ground, per kilogram	0. 40
212	2. Cinnamon, cassia lignea, cinnamon flowers and cinnamon chips, ound and not ground, per kilogram	1. 00
213	3. Cayenne pepper and curry powders, including the weight of the innermost envelope, cardamom, mace, and nutmegs, ground and not ground, per kilogram	2. 00
214	4. Saffron and vanilla, ground and not ground, including the weight of the innermost envelope	3. 00
	5. Mustard:	
215	*a.* Not ground (mustard seed), per kilogram	0. 10
216	*b.* Ground or prepared, including the weight of the innermost envelope, per kilogram	0. 60
217	6. Sauces, including the weight of the innermost envelope, per kilogram	0. 24
218	Coal (charcoal), ground and not ground	Free.
	Baskets and other plaited work of osier, willow, and root fibers:	
219	*a.* Wholly or in part manufactured of unbarked osier	Free.
220	*b.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0. 30
	Quicksilver. (*See* Metals).	
	L.	
221	Sealing wax, per kilogram	0. 46
222	Liquorice juice, per kilogram	0. 10
	Lamps:	
223	*a.* Gilded or silver plated, per kilogram	0. 70
224	*b.* [Other lamps, including household lamps, with the weight of the boxes, per kilogram	0. 35
	Loose glasses and stands shall be rated separately.	
225	Bays and bay leaves	Free.
	Clay. (*See* Earth.)	
	Earthenware. (*See* Earth.)	
	Toys of a single material, according to material, of joiners' or turners' wooden work, as these articles.	
226	Other toys, per kilogram	0. 60
	Lemonade. (*See* Cider, under Juices).	
	Glue:	
	Liver, blubber, and similar articles, as train.	
227	*a.* Isinglass and gelantine, per kilogram	1. 50
228	*b.* Other kinds	Free.
	Flax, hemp, Manila hemp, gunny, jute, China grass, and similar spinning materials and manufactures thereof:	
229	1. The aforesaid spinning materials hackled and not hackled, waste thereof, including straw of flax	Free.
	2. Yarn:	
230	*a.* Not dyed, per kilogram	0. 07
231	*b.* Dyed, not twisted, per kilogram	0. 27
232	*c.* Dyed, twisted, per kilogram	0. 53
	(In bond, 100 kilograms.)	
233	3. Felt	Free.
	4. Rope-maker work:	
234	*a.* Tarred.	
	b. Not tarred, of over 2 millimeters in diameter	Free.
	c. Not tarred, finer, likewise with interwoven dyed yarn for fastening, per kilogram	0. 07
237	5. Fire-engine hoses	Free.
238	6. Coarse textures for upholsterer's work, &c., per kilogram	0. 13
239	7. Fishing-net, according to material, and 10 per cent. in addition thereof.	
240	8. Carpets and carpeting, per kilogram	0. 27
	(In bond, 600 kilograms.)	
241	9. Woven goods, weighing 110 grams and over, on a square half-meter, bleached and not bleached, per kilogram	0. 07
	(In bond, 600 kilograms.)	
242	10. Ribbons and tapes; likewise ribbons and woven goods, with interwoven India rubber, gutta-percha, and like, and belts thereof (as similar articles of cotton), per kilogram	1. 07
243	11. Draper and damask, likewise kerchiefs, if not dutiable under a higher rate (as similar goods of cotton)	0. 60
	(In bond, 100 kilograms.)	
244	12. Knit goods (as knit goods of cotton), per kilogram	1. 07
	13. Haberdashery. (*See* letter P.)	
245	14. Bosoms for shirts, tamboured or woven, according to material, and 10 per cent. in addition thereto.	
246	15. Blonde, bobbinets, lace, and gauze (as similar goods of cotton), per kilogram	2. 50
247	16. Other open or clear goods, whether embroidered or interwoven with patterns, figures, stripes, or squares, excepting, however, embroidery on canvas (as similar goods of cotton), per kilogram	1. 76

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Obs.—Goods shall be dutiable as open or clear, if intervals of a minimum thickness of one thread can be distinguished between the single threads outside the embroidery, or the interwoven close figures, stripes, &c.; or, if this be impossible, if one-half meter square weighs only 20 grams or less.	
	17. Other goods of the above specified spinning materials.	*Crowns.*
248	*a.* Printed (as similar goods of cotton), per kilogram	1.67
	(In bond, 90 kilograms.)	
	Obs.—Goods of one color, &c. (*See* the observation under Cotton.)	
249	*b.* Of several colors, not printed (as similar goods of cotton), per kilogram	0.53
	(In bond, 150 kilograms.)	
250	*c.* Entirely of one color and bleached (as similar goods of cotton), per kilogram	0.27
	(In bond, 225 kilogram.)	
251	*d.* Unbleached, per kilogram	0.13
	(In bond, 450 kilograms.)	
	Obs.—Goods of the above enumerated spinning materials, in combination with cotton, as cotton goods; in combination with wool, as woolen goods; in combination with silk, as silk goods.	
	Linseed. (*See* Seeds.)	
	Linseed cake. (See Oil cake.)	
	Lentils. (*See* Grain.)	
	Linen made up by hand. (*See* Clothing and Dress Goods made up by sewing.)	
	Liquors. (*See* Brandy.)	
	Smelling water. (*See* under Brandy.)	
252	Matches, per kilogram	0.20
	Lanterns as lamps.	
	Candles of wax. (*See* Wax.)	
	Candles, other. (*See* Fats and Tallows.)	
	Photographs on paper. (*See* Paper.)	
253	Photographs, other	Free.
	Leather. (*See* Skins.)	
	Onions. (*See* Vegetables.)	
	M.	
254	Instruments for weighing and measuring	Free.
	Macaroni. (*See* Vermicelli.)	
	Mattresses, filled and stuffed, bed-clothes, quilts, stuffed furniture and stuffed parts thereof, of which the joiners' work does not form the chief part; cushions for carriages, stuffed cushions for sofas, foot-stools, &c.:	
255	1. When any part thereof consists of metal or wood, per kilogram	0.12
	2. Otherwise.	
256	*a.* Stuffed with feathers or down, per kilogram	0.50
257	*b.* Stuffed with other materials	15 per cent.
258	Obs.—When the articles belonging to these classes have covers of silk or of silk in combination with other materials, they shall pay an additional duty of 10 per cent.	
	Provisions in hermetically closed and air-tight vessels:	
	1. Of animals. (*See* Animals and Provisions of animals.)	
259	2. Other provisions, including the weight of the envelopes, per kilogram	0.60
260	Paintings and drawings, not framed	Free.
	Framed (*See* Frames.)	
	Paints and painters' goods. (*See* Dyes.)	
	Ores, not melted. (*See* Stone.)	
	Malt. (*See* Grain.)	
261	Extract of malt, dry or liquid, including the weight of the innermost envelope, per kilogram	0.36
262	Almonds and almond powder, per kilogram	0.40
	(Tare: envelope of linen, 4 per cent.)	
	Grits of manna. (*See* Grits of wheat, under Grain.)	
	Machinery:	
263	Steam-engines and other engines for industrial, agricultural, or nautical purposes; likewise parts of such engines, including packing for engines, friction bands, and driving bands	Free.
	Mats. (*See* the material.)	
	Medals. (*See* Metals.)	
	Flour. (*See* Grain.)	
	Meerschaum. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
	Metals:	
264	I. Crude, in pigs, granulated, in blocks and bars, and in such slabs or like, which have undergone no other finishing than melting; also old metal goods only fit for remanufacturing and scrap metal	Free.
	II. Manufactured:	
	A.—Of various metals:	
265	1. Hooks and fish-hooks, including fly-hooks and hooks with artificial bait	Free.
266	2. Jewelry of base metals, in or without combination with other metals, as bracelets, pins, chains, crosses, rings, seals, clasps, &c., including the cases, boxes, papers, or like innermost envelopes, per kilogram	0.80
267	3. Gold leaf and silver leaf and all other metal leaf	Free.
268	4. Bronze powder, and all other finely ground metals, pure and imitation	Free.
269	5. Guns and pistols, per kilogram	0.53
270	Gun-barrels in raw state	Free.
271	Other parts, per kilogram	0.10

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Metals—Continued.	
	II. Manufactures—Continued.	
	A.—Of various metals—Continued.	*Crowns.*
272	6. Cannon, mortars, gun-carriages, and shot	Free.
273	7. Trimmings of gold, silver, platina, and aluminium, as thread, lahn, tinsel, tresses, galloons, laces, fringes, pure and imitation, per kilogram	2. 33. 3
274	8. Hackels	Free.
275	9. Hooks and eyes, hair-pins, pins, per kilogram No tare shall be allowed for the papers on which pins are fastened.	0. 53
276	10. Coins, medals	Free.
277	11. Pins, including the weight of the pasteboards or the boxes, per kilo	0. 60
278	12. Beads of other metals than gold, silver, and aluminium, per kilogram	1. 16
279	13. Implements and tools for industrial, nautical, and agricultural purposes, provided they are not otherwise herein specified, with or without handles	Free.
280	14. Type-founder work of all kinds (for instance, types and stereotype plates, ornaments and molds of metal, with or without combination of wood, for printers, binders, cotton-printers, paper-hangings manufacturers, &c., as well as plates of metal, engraved or in other ways prepared for printing of music, land and sea charts, &c.)	Free.
281	15 *a*. Wire of steel or other metals, interwoven in or covered with ribbons, thread, paper, or like (including the weight of the spools); steel springs covered with thread or like, including crinoline wire, per kilogram	0. 27
282	*b*. Manufactures, including hat-bodies, per kilometer OBS.—Very heavy manufactures of metal for industrial and agricultural purposes, also for use on board ships, can be allowed by the treasury department to enter at a reduced rate of duty, or, according to the circumstances, free of duty, provided they are not already exempt of duty according to the tariff.	0. 40
	B. Gold, silver, aluminium, platina:	
283	1. Pressed, unpolished, per hectogram	0. 64
	2. Otherwise manufactured, including the article set in the manufactured metal, per hectogram	0. 64
	C.—Iron:	
284	1. Steel, as bar iron.	
285	2. Nails, bolts, screws, clencher-nails; also zincked, coppered, and tinned	Free.
286	3. Nuts, clench-plates clench-rings	Free.
287	4. Table-knives and forks, with handles of silver, or silver-plated; pen-knives, razors, with or without cases or boxes, per kilometer Observe: Knives wherein are blades of pen-knives shall be rated as pen-knives; also when they have other blades or instruments.	0. 80
	5. Steel and iron wire:	
288	*a*. Also coppered and zincked (including strings)	Free.
	b. Wires and wire bands, and wires manufactured. (*See* Metals, manufactured. A No. 15.)	
289	*c*. Manufactured:	
290	α Ropes	Free.
	β. Otherwise	Free.
	6. Needles:	
291	*a*. Sewing, embroidery, darning, crochet, and knitting needles, including the papers covering the needles, per kilogram	0. 53
	b. Pins and hair-pins. (*See* 9th class of manufactured metals.)	
	c. Other needles, as polished manufactures of iron.	
292	7. Door-handles, fire-shovels, fire-tongs, pokers, hinges, garden shears, hand-mills, knobs for drawers and like, chopping-knives, door-bolts, scissors (not polished), buckles, knitting needle, irons, mountings of doors and windows, materials for keys, with or without handles, per kilogram	0. 15
293	8. Thimbles and sewing-rings (also lined with other metal than iron) steel for striking fire, cork-screws, other knives and forks than those above enumerated, scissors (polished), locks, snuffers, spurs, skates, swords and sabers, with and without sheaths, and blades for such weapons, per kilogram	0. 35
294	9. Beds, safes and fire-proof boxes, so styled, copying presses and seal presses	Free.
	10. Other cast-iron manufactures:	
	1. Fine, such as ash pans, newspaper brackets, tables, bas-reliefs, cruet-stands, book-shelves, barometers, handbells, cigar-holders, etagères, figures and groups thereof, match-boxes, reels for wool, &c., candelabras, consoles, baskets, chandeliers, sconces, reading desks, screens, candlesticks, lockets, paper-holders, pen-holders, pen-racks, trays, censers, bowls, inkstands, sugar choppers, needle-work holders, looking-glass frames, tobacco boxes, thermometers, watch-stands and vases, whether or not polished, painted, bronzed, varnished, galvanized, or the like, per kilogram	0. 20
	2. Coarse:	
296	*a*. Pipes, valves for pipes, ballast iron, retorts	Free.
297	*b*. Pots and kettles, with or without lids	Free
298	*c*. Cast-iron ware, not otherwise specified	Free.

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Metals—Continued.	
	Manufactured—Continued.	
	C.—Iron—Continued.	
	Wrought or rolled:	*Crowns.*
299	*a.* Bar, bolt, and band iron, axles, and pivots, crows, ship-knees, cramps, T-irons, and other rolled and hammered, scrap iron, railroad bars, plates and cramps for fastening such bars	Free.
300	*b.* Pipes and valves for pipes, posts for fences	Free.
301	*c.* Ship anchors, cable chains, and iron chains	Free.
302	*d.* Plates	Free.
303	*e.* Plates 3½ millimeters, and over, thick, manufactured, including boilers	Free.
	f. Plates less than 3½ millimeters thick, manufactured:	
304	*α.* Lacquered, enameled, or glazed, per kilogram	0.25
305	*β.* Painted, varnished, bronzed, per kilogram	0.15
306	*γ.* Otherwise (including articles overlaid with zinc) per kilogram	0.10
	g. Manufactures from iron, otherwise wrought or rolled:	
307	*α.* Gilt or plated, per kilogram	0.70
308	*β.* Overlaid with nickel or polished (all goods on which no filing is visible shall be rated as polished) per kilogram	0.25
309	*γ.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0.10
310	D. Lead, rolls, pigs, sheets	Free.
311	Pipes.	
	Boxes, foil, toys, as similar goods of tin.	
312	Other manufactures, including shot, per kilogram	0.08
	(Tare, shot packed in linen 1 per cent.)	
313	E. Tin in rolls, pigs, sheets, and in grain	Free.
314	Pipes	Free.
	Other manufactures:	
315	*a.* Gilt, plated, per kilogram	0.70
316	*b.* Otherwise, including foil, per kilogram	0.25
317	F. Zinc in sheets, blocks, bars, pipes	Free.
318	Nails	Free.
319	Wire and strings	Free.
	Otherwise manufactured:	
320	*a.* Gilt, silver-plated, per kilogram	0.70
321	*b.* Bronzed, varnished, lacquered or painted, per kilogram	0.25
322	*c.* Cast articles, weighing over 25 kilograms per piece	Free.
323	*d.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0.15
	G. Copper, brass, bronze, German silver, and other metals, mixed with copper:	
324	1. Plates, sheets, bolts, rivet rings, rivet plates, bottoms, bars, wire-cloth, and unpolished pipes	Free.
325	2. Nails, screws, nuts, rivets	Free.
326	3. Sheets, plated	Free.
	4. Buttons. (*See* Buttons.)	
327	5. Thread and strings	Free.
328	6. Manufactures of wire, in or without combination with other materials, provided they do not enter into any of the above classes, per kilogram	0.25
329	7. Casts of busts and statues, weighing over 25 kilograms	Free.
330	8. Bells, wheel boxes, door mountings, door latches, faucets, hinges, candlesticks, mortars, casters for furniture, irons, thimbles, sewing-rings, knobs for drawers or like, rings and hooks, with or without screw-thread, watch-keys in or without combination with other materials, per kilogram	0.35
	9. Other manufactures:	
331	*a.* Gilt and plated, including the articles especially enumerated under No. 8, when imported as gilt and silver-plated, per kilogram	0.70
332	*b.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0.35
	Brittannia metal, as copper.	
	Microscopes. (*See* Telescopes.)	
	Minerals. (*See* Stone.)	
	Mineral waters. (*See* Thermal waters.)	
333	Mead, per kilogram	0.17
	(Tare, casks, 16 per cent.)	
334	Models, not fit for any other use	Free.
335	Musk	Free.
	Mushrooms. (*See* Champignons.)	
	Music. (*See* under Paper.)	
	Mace and nutmegs. (*See* Spices.)	
	Must. (*See* Juices.)	
	N.	
	Needles (sewing, embroidery, crochet, knitting, and darning needles.) (*See* Iron, under Metals.)	
	Pins and hairpins. (*See* Manufactured metals, A No. 9.)	
	Other needles. (*See* Iron, under Metals.)	
336	Specimens of natural history of all kinds	Free.
	Nickel. (*See* Metals.)	
337	Nitro-glycerine and dynamite	Free.

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
338	Vermicelli, macaroni, per kilogram	0.20
	(Tare, boxes, 24 per cent., baskets, 12 per cent.)	
339	Nuts, hazel, and walnuts, Para nuts, and other edible nuts, not otherwise provided for, per kilogram	0.33
	O.	
340	Wafers of all kinds, including wafer-sheets, per kilogram	0.80
	Oils:	
	1. Fatty oils:	
341	*a.* Olive oil, per kilogram	0.06.7
	(In bond, 1,200 kilograms.)	
	b. Hemp-seed oil, palm oil, cocoanut oil, per kilogram	0.05
	(In bond, 7,800 kilograms.)	
	c. Linseed oil, rape-seed oil, sperm oil, oleine, lard, and other fatty oils, or oily substances, if not elsewhere specified in the tariff, per kilogram	0.05
	(In bond, 1,800 kilograms.)	
342	*d.* Castor-oil (oleum ricini.)	Free.
	2. Ethereal:	
343	*a.* Camphene, paraffine oil, photogene, wood-oil, and like illuminating fluids, American earth or stone oil (petroleum), per kilogram	0.10
	(In bond, 1,800 kilograms.)	
344	*b.* Turpentine, spike juniper, and birch oil; hartshorn, amber oil, and "oleum succinicum crudum," per kilogram	0.06.7
	(Tare for No. 1, *a* and *b*, and for No. 2, *a* and *b*: In casks, or other barrels, single or double for fatty oils, 18 per cent.; for ethereal oils, 20 per cent.; in bottles and glasses without other envelope, 20 per cent.; in bottles or glasses in one plain basket with straw, 30 per cent.; in bottles and glasses in two plain baskets with straw, 40 per cent.; in bottles or glasses packed in sawdust or similar article in boxes, 40 per cent.; in earthen jars, 30 per cent.; in earthen jars in one plain basket with straw, 40 per cent.; in earthen jars in two plain baskets with straw, 50 per cent.)	
345	*c.* Other ethereal oils, including the weight of the innermost envelope (bottle, jar or like), per kilogram	2.00
346	3. Hair oil, including the weight of the vessel (bottle, jar, &c.), per kilogram	0.67
347	Oil cakes and oil flour	Free.
	Olives. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Oranges. (*See* Fruits.)	
348	Cheese, per kilogram	0.15
	Ox tongues. (*See* Provisions, under Animals.)	
	P.	
	Paper and manufactures thereof:	
349	1. Writing, drawing, and music paper with lines, and all kinds of paper suitable for writing and drawing paper, white and colored in the mass, varnished, oiled or prepared in alike way; parchment paper and paper cut in slips for telegraphs, per kilogram	0.13
350	2. Paper, printing, all kinds of paper suitable for printing-paper, which do not enter into the foregoing class, white and colored in the mass, blotting and filtering paper	Free.
351	3. Pasteboard, packing and wrapping paper, paper-waste pressing pasteboard	Free.
352	4. Sheathing and roofing paper, paper coated or covered with asphaltum, tar, glass, sand, slate, emery, or like; also papers which do not enter into any of the above classes	Free.
353	5. Ornaments of stone, pasteboard, and slates	Free.
354	6. Hangings, patterns, and books of patterns for embroidery, knitting, crotchet-work and the like (newspapers and journals excepted), blank forms, vignettes, labels, ruled paper, round games of paper, enameled paper, visiting cards, tickets for steamers and the like; envelopes cut out and pasted together; also white linen lining, bags and the like; frames with or without glass for pictures; paper covered with gauze or other materials, lacquered paper and cap shades thereof, per kilogram	0.13
355	7. Playing cards, per kilogram	0.13
356	8. Written paper, paper money, lines of exchange, bonds, shares and like papers, representing values	Free
357	9. Paper, bound or stiched, per kilogram	0.27
358	10. Books, or parts thereof, newspapers, sheets of music, and other articles of paper, printed or written (engravings, lithographs, &c., included), not chargeable under No. 6, bound and unbound	Free.
359	11. Other manufactures of pasteboard and other paper, and of papier-maché, including albums, per kilogram	0.60
	Paper, calico. (*See* Textile goods).	
	Papier-maché, manufactured. (*See* under Paper.)	
360	Paper, waste, or shavings	Free.
	Parasols and umbrellas:	
361	1. With covers of silk or silk in part, per piece	0.75
362	2. With cover of other materials, per piece	0.25
363	3. Frames without cover, per kilogram	0.35
	Pepper. (*See* Spices.)	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Brushes. (*See* Brush-maker's goods.)	
	Mother of pearl:	*Crowns.*
364	1. Unmanufactured	Free.
	2. Manufactured:	
	(*a*) Buttons. (*See* letter K.)	
365	(*b*) Otherwise, per kilogram	0.80
366	Pearls, precious, not set	Free.
	Set, shall be weigh-d with the setting and dutiable at the same rate.	
	Necklace of corals, as corals manufactured.	
	Pipe bowls, tobacco pipes, pipe tubes, mouth-pieces, irrespective of material, with or without mounting or other appurtenances, and with or without cases:	
367	(*a*) Clay-pipes	0.07
	Tare, cases 17 per cent.	
	Baskets 12 per cent.	
368	(*b*) Other, per kilogram	0.35
	Pickles. (*See* Vegetables.)	
	Pistols. (*See* under Metals.)	
	Plants, live. (*See* Trees.)	
369	Plows	Free.
370	Pomade, including the weight of the innermost envelope (paper, glass, jars, and the like), per kilogram	0.35
	Bitter oranges. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Porcelain. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
	Portfolios, as letter cases.	
	Porter. (*See* Ale.)	
	Haberdashery:	
	1. Of silk alone, as silk.	
371	2. Of silk in combination with other materials, whether the outer part consists wholly of silk over other materials or of silk in combination with other materials, per kilogram	2.33.3
372	3. Other, per kilogram	1.33.3
	OBS.—Besides the articles which generally belong to haberdashery, the following are classed as such: Buttons, covered with woven or spun goods, lacing, all kinds of woolen ribbons and woolen cords and hair nets. No deduction of duty shall be given for materials used as inner packings of haberdashery.	
	Pies. (*See* Animals, &c.)	
373	Potash	Free.
	Potatoes	Free.
	Potato-flour, as starch.	
	Pottery. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
374	Presses, printing presses and other presses for lithographs, engravings from copper and steel plates, &c	Free.
	Sample-books, without samples, as bound paper.	
	Cushions, as mattresses.	
	Extract of punch, as brandy.	
	Sausages. (*See* Provisions, under Animals.)	
	R.	
375	Frames for oil paintings	Free.
	For oil prints, engravings, and the like, are dutiable as manufactures of the material of which they are principally made without deduction for the weight of the picture, glass, &c. In the case of frames, dutiable ad valorem, no account shall be taken of the value of the picture.	
	Frames of paper, covered with glass. (*See* Paper.)	
	Rape seed. (*See* Seeds.)	
376	Amber, and manufactures thereof	Free.
	Cordage. (*See* Flax and hemp.)	
	Cordage of bast, grass, or rush (according to material).	
	Slates:	
	a. Of stone. (*See* Stone.)	
	b. Of pasteboard. (*See* Paper.)	
377	*c*. Of other materials	Free.
378	Traveling bags, traveling trunks, hat boxes, portmanteaus, pouches, and similar bags and trunks of leather, or covered with leather, likewise of wool, cotton, hemp, or flax, &c., in combination or otherwise with leather, or other material, per kilogram	0.80
	Riding whips. (*See* Saddles, under Skin.)	
	Rice:	
	In the husk:	
379	1. Loose, in bulk, per 100 kilograms	3.90
	(In bond, 3,000 kilograms.)	
380	In bags, &c., per kilogram	0.05
	(In bond, 3,000 kilograms.)	
381	2. Cleaned (rice grit and ground rice), per kilogram	0.10
	(In bond, 1,200 kilograms.)	
	OBS.—If cleaned rice and rice in the husk be mixed up when imported, the proportion of each kind shall be taken into account in assessing the duty leviable.	
382	3. Bran of rice	Free.
	Roe, caviar. (*See* Provisions, under Animals.)	
383	Other	Free.

A—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Raisins. (*See* Fruits.)	
383	Raisin stems.	
	Shades, painted or printed. (*See* Textile goods.)	
	Roots, edible. (*See* Vegetables.)	*Crowns.*
385	Chicory and beet, not roast, per kilogram	0. 07
	Roast, and other roast roots used for coffee as roast coffee.	
	Red-stone and red chalk, as chalk.	
386	Incense and incense paper, including the weight of the envelope, per kilogram	1. 20
387	Canes, including reed for plastering, bamboo, rattan, split, and not split	Free.
388	Plated manufactures, thereof, per kilogram	0. 30
	S.	
	Sables. (*See* Iron, under Metals.)	
	Saddlery. (*See* Skins.)	
	Saffron. (*See* Spices.)	
	Juices of fruits and berries:	
	1. Prepared with sugar. (*See* Fruits.)	
389	2. Other, including must, containing until 18 per cent. alcohol, per kilogram	0. 26. 5
	(Tare, casks 16 per cent.)	
390	Sago and sago flour, salep, ground arrowroot, tapioca, pearl and flour, per kilogram	0. 15
	(In bond, 900 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, boxes, 16 per cent.)	
	Sal-ammoniac. (*See* Ammonia.)	
391	Saltpeter, crude	Free.
392	Chili saltpeter, (nitric natron)	Free.
393	Nitric acid	Free.
	Salts:	
394	1. Rock salt or stone salt	Free
	2. Glauber (as soda).	
	3. Hartshorn salt. (*See* Ammonia.)	
395	4. Refined table salt, in blocks, loaves, and lumps, per kilogram	0. 03. 3
396	5. Other salt, for cooking, per hectoliter	0. 36
	At the ports of Hammerfest, Vardoe, and Vadso, per hectoliter	0. 18
	(In bond, 330 hectoliters.)	
397	Muriatic acid	Free.
	Sauces. (*See* Spices.)	
	Shellac. (*See* Gums.)	
	Sails, made up by sewing. (*See* Textile goods.)	
	Twine (as cordage). (*See* Flax, &c.)	
	Bed clothes. (*See* Matresses.)	
	Mustard. (*See* Spices.)	
	Siccative, or drying oil. (*See* Varnish.)	
398	Sieves, per kilogram	0. 53
	Silk and silk goods, as well as other textile materials in combination with silk:	
399	1. Twisted and not twisted, dyed and not dyed, in or without combination with other spinning materials, per kilogram	0. 93
400	2. Blonde, bobbinet, lace and gauze of silk in combination with other textile material (as similar goods of cotton), per kilogram	2. 50
401	3. Velvet and other goods with figures, stripes, &c., of velvet, in or without combination with other textile materials, metal or glass threads, per kilogram	3. 47
402	4. Silk floss (felt or plush), in or without combination with other textile materials, per kilogram	2. 33. 3
	5. Haberdashery. (*See* under letter P.)	
	Other goods:	
403	6. Of silk alone, or of silk with interwoven glass or metal threads, per kilogram	3. 47
	(In bond, 30 kilograms.)	
	Of silk mixed with other materials:	
404	*a.* When at least the half of the article, or when the warp or the woof, the right or the wrong side consist of other materials than silk, it shall be considered consisting of silk alone, per kilogram	2. 33. 3
	(In bond, 35 kilograms.)	
	b. Otherwise, as other goods of silk alone.	
	OBS.—When it is not possible to ascertain whether the half of the goods consists of other materials than silk, it shall be considered consisting only of silk.	
	Sirup. (*See* Sugar.)	
405	Rushes, in raw state	Free.
	Brooms and brushes. (*See* Brooms.)	
406	Otherwise manufactured, per kilogram	0. 10
	Aquafortis. (*See* Nitric acid.)	
407	Ships, with inventory.	
408	Tortoise shell, unmanufactured	Free.
	manufactured as horn, letter *b*.	
	Skins and hides:	
	A. With hair on, not specified under peltries, or dutiable under that class:	
	a. Undressed, salted, or otherwise.	
409	1. Dried	Free.
410	2. Raw	Free.
411	*b.* Dressed, per kilogram	0. 33. 3
412	3. Manufactured, per kilogram	0. 37

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Skins and hides—Continued.	
	B. Without hair:	*Crowns.*
413	*a.* Tanned, including sole leather and leather for inner soles, per kilogram. (In bond, 200 kilograms.)	0.23
	b. Belting. (*See* Machinery.)	
414	*c.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0.46
	d. Manufactured:	
415	1. Gloves, sewed and only cut, also lined with another material, per kilogram	2.33
	2. Shoemakers' work:	
416	*a.* Of silk or of material combined with silk, per kilogram	2.33.3
417	*β.* Of other material or of morocco, cordova leather, glazed and dyed skins, in combination with other skins, or otherwise, per kilogram	1.43
	γ. Of other skins or leather, and of felt:	
	With soles of wood, per kilogram	0.20
419	With soles of other material, per kilogram	0.93
420	3. Saddles, harness, bits, whips for driving, horsewhips, trusses, per kilogram	0.60
	4. Portfolios. (*See* Cases.)	
421	5. Manufactures not otherwise enumerated shall be rated as the skins and hides of which they are made, and in addition thereto, 10 per cent. Skins and hides, only cut and not finished in any other way, curved boot-legs and hat-bands with holes, shall not be rated as skins and hides manufactured.	
	C. Skins and hides, with hair or feathers, for peltries:	
	a. Undressed:	
422	1. Of goats, sheep, or lambs, with the exception of gray Crimean and genuine Kalmuck skins, skins of deer, roes, does, elks, reindeer, kangaroos, hares, and seal	Free.
423	2. Skins of beavers, fitchets, chinchilla, stone-martin, mink, sables, black and blue foxes, and otter, per kilogram	2.00
424	3. Other kinds, per kilogram	0.40
	b. Prepared separate and sewed together:	
425	1. Skins of the animals specified under *c a* 1, above, per kilogram	0.20
426	2. Pennsylvania skins, per kilogram	2.40
427	3. Other skins pay as undressed skin and 20 per cent. in addition thereto.	
428	*c.* Manufactured peltries are dutiable as dressed skins, with 50 per cent. in addition thereto. Fur cloaks and garments lined with fur and other peltries in combination with cloth or other textile materials (with the exception of caps) shall be assessed for their entire weight as peltries.	
429	Waste of skins and hides. Shoes and other boots of felt. (*See* Shoemakers' work, under Skins and hides.)	
	Shoemaker's goods. (*See* Skins.)	
	Shoe-blacking and shoe wax. (*See* Blacking.)	
	Typefounders' goods. (*See* Metals.)	
	Fire-arms. (*See* Metals.)	
	Emery. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
430	Butter, lard, and fats	Free.
	Joiners' goods. (*See* Wood.)	
431	Soda	Free.
	Soda water (as water from mineral springs).	
	Sieves.	
	Soya, as Sauces.	
	Manufactures of chips:	
	Hats and caps. (*See* Hats.)	
432	Mats, for floors, per kilogram	0.07
433	For hats, also with gauze and other material, sewed or pasted on, per kilogram	0.40
434	Hat bodies, hat crowns, and hat brims, manufactured thereof, per kilogram	0.40
435	Other manufactures, per kilogram	0.10
436	Walking canes, sticks for parasols and umbrellas of all kinds, and all unsplit canes which have been more finished than only cut in certain lengths, and fishing-rods, per kilogram	0.35
437	Looking glasses:	
	Plate glass. (*See* Glass ware.)	
	Spermaceti and candles thereof. (*See* Whale fat, under Fats and tallows.)	
	Caraway. (*See* Seeds.)	
	Playing cards. (*See* Paper.)	
	Blubber. (*See* Train oil.)	
	Steel and steel wire. (*See* Iron, under Metals.)	
	Metallic pens. (*See* Iron, under Metals.)	
	Staves. (*See* Wood.)	
	Stearine and stearine candles. (*See* Fats and tallows.)	
	Stone and manufactures thereof:	
	1. Precious stones and imitations thereof, cut or polished.	
	a. Set in gold, silver, or aluminium, shall be weighed together with the setting, and be dutiable as therein	
	b. Jewelry in or without combination with other metals than those enumerated above under *a*, as jewelry under metals.	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
	Stone and manufactures thereof—Continued.	
438	2. All other kinds, including slates and slate pencils, plaster of Paris, chalk, cement, castings, and molds of cement, plaster, chalk, or like; also stone powdered, ground, or otherwise prepared	Free.
439	Coal, including coke and cinder	Free.
	Manufactured, as cut and polished stone.	
	Lithographs. (*See* Paper.)	
	Crockeryware. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
440	Starch and starch gums (dextrine), per kilogram	0. 03. 3
	(Tare, boxes, 16 per cent.)	
441	Straw:	
	Manufactured.	
	Straw flowers. (*See* Flowers.)	
	Mats for floors, cords, and other similar coarse plaitings as rush, otherwise manufactured.	
	Hats and caps. (*See* Hats.)	
442	Other plaitings than above enumerated.	
	Manufactured.	
	Trimmings and other manufactures of straw inor without combination with other materials, per kilogram	0. 93
443	Strings, cat-guts, and silk strings, with or without other cover, per kilogram	1. 16. 6
	Of metal. (*See* Metal.)	
	Straw of flax. (*See* Flax, &c.)	
	Orange peel. (*See* Fruits in sugar.)	
	Sugar and sirup:	
444	1. Sugar, in whole or crushed loaves, squares, or cakes, and sugar-candy, per kilograms	0. 44
	(In bond, 240 kilograms.)	
	2. Other sugar:	
445	*a*. Light, per kilogram	0. 44
	(In bond 240 kilograms.)	
446	*b*. Dark, also dissolved and other liquid sugar (including the juice before the sugar was separated), which cannot be classed as common sirup or molasses, sugar of grapes or starch, per kilogram	0. 36
	(In bond, 325 kilograms.)	
	(Tare for No. 1 and 2, *a* and *b*; for paper with or without twine no tare shall be allowed; boxes candy, 12 per cent.; other sugar, 15 per cent.)	
	3. Sirup:	
447	*a*. Common sirup and molasses, per kilogram	0. 06. 7
	(In bond, 1,200 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks, 12 per cent.)	
448	Capillaire, mulberry, rose, violet sirup and other like sirups, per kilogram	0. 53
	Sugars, lighter than the standards which will be forwarded by the treasury department to the ports of entry and correspond with the Amsterdam standard No. 20 shall be classed as "other light sugars."	
	If the same package contains sugars dutiable at different rates the whole lot shall be dutiable at the highest rate. A package containing crystallized sugar, together with sirup and molasses, shall be entirely dutiable as "other dark sugars," if over a fourth of the total weight is solid sugar.	
449	Confectionery, including drops and other like preparations of sugar, per kilogram	0. 46. 6
450	Mineral spring water or mineral water	Free.
451	Sponges (washing sponges), per kilogram	2. 67
	Prunes. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Bristles. (*See* Hair.)	
452	Brimstone and sulphur flours	Free.
	Lucifers, as matches.	
453	Sulphuric acid (vitriol oil).	
454	Blackings of all kinds (the duty on blacking for boots and shoes is payable on the weight of the innermost packing, envelope as well).	
	Work-boxes, with implements. (*See* Cases.)	
	Whips. (*See* under Skins.)	
	Soap:	
455	Soft, per kilogram	0. 03. 3
456	Transparent, per kilogram	0. 30
457	Otherwise, per kilogram	0. 10
	(In bond, 1,200 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks and boxes, 12 per cent.)	
	Bags sewed. (*See* Textile goods.)	
	Litharge. (*See* Dyes No. 4.)	
	T.	
	Tiles for roofing. (*See* Earth and clay.)	
	Tallow candles. (*See* Fats and tallows.)	
	Tamarinds. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Tapioca. (*See* Sago.)	
	Cat-guts. (*See* Strings.)	
	Slates. (*See* Stone.)	
	Pocket-books. (*See* Letter-cases.)	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
458	Telegraph apparatus and telegraph cables, telephones	Free.
	Turpentine. (*See* Gums and resin.)	
	Terra japonica. (*See* Catechu.)	
459	Tea, per kilogram	1.60
	(In bond, 60 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, boxes lined with lead, 25 per cent.)	
460	Oxide of tin	Free.
461	Salts of tin	Free.
462	Tar of wood and coal	Free.
	"Bright varnish," as turpentine. (*See* Gums and resins.)	
	Tobacco:	
463	Stems, per kilogram	1.25
	(In bond, 150 kilograms.)	
464	In leaf and not stemmed, per kilogram	1.25
	(In bond, 150 kilograms.)	
	Tobacco in leaf sweetened is equal to tobacco in leaf unsweetened as regards the quantity in bond.	
	(Tare for stems and tobacco in leaf and not stemmed; hides, 8 per cent.; rush, with or without bagging, 10 per cent.; baskets, 3 per cent., bagging, 2 per cent. Casks; (a) when the article is imported from a place in Europe, 8 per cent.; (b) when imported from a place out of Europe, 12 per cent.)	
465	Snuff, per kilogram	1.50
	(Tare in bottles and jars, 50 per cent.; other envelope, 15 per cent.)	
466	Cigars and cigarettes, per kilogram	2.50
	(Tare, boxes 25 per cent.)	
467	Smoking tobacco, chewing tobacco, and manufactured tobacco of all descriptions, per kilogram	1.50
	No tare shall be allowed for paper or other envelope of smoking and chewing tobacco.	
468	Torpedoes and electric apparatus for use in submarine mines	Free.
	Cordage (according to material).	
469	Train oil.	
	Train lye. (*See* Lye of fats.)	
	Tripoli. (*See* Earth.)	
	Wood and wooden ware:	
470	1. Poles, fillets and frames with real and false gilding, likewise, if the weight of each piece does not exceed 1½ kilograms, platters, bowls, boxes, cruet-stands, sewing and dressing cases without fittings, carving and similar small articles, per kilogram	0.23
471	2. Fillets, ornamented, not gilt, per kilogram	0.10
	3. Turners' goods, with or without fittings, rings, &c., combs (also of cocoa or other nuts).	
472	*a.* Blocks, tools and parts thereof, spools	Free.
474	*b.* Spinning wheels and other simple turners' work, such as legs for furniture, per kilogram	0.13
474	*c.* Ivory turners' goods, pen-holders of wood of all kinds, combs, per kilogram	0.13
	4. Carved goods, weighing over 1.5 kilograms per piece, as furniture.	
	5. Basket-work of ozier and willows. (*See* Baskets.)	
	6. Furniture with cushions and seats:	
475	*a.* Of walnut, mahogany, and other foreign woods, as well as veneered with the same, irrespective of the kind of wood, real or imitation gilding, and lacquered, per kilogram	0.13
476	*b.* Of fir and pine, also in combination with small parts of other domestic woods without veneering, per kilogram	0.02
477	*c.* Of beech and other domestic woods, as well as veneering of these woods, per kilogram	0.06.6
478	To the article in other cases than that specified in letter *b*, composed of different kinds of wood, if shall be dutiable as if entirely made of the wood which pays the highest duty.	
	Furniture covered with silk, or silk in combination with other materials, shall pay additional duty of 10 per cent., whereas for other covers no additional duty shall be charged.	
479	7. Staves, manufactured, and other coopers' goods, ad valorem	10 per cent.
	At the ports of Hammerfest, Vardoe, and Vadso	6 per cent.
	Manufactured staves or such as are shaved, as well as grooved, that is, provided with incisions for the bottoms, and the bottom pieces belonging to such bottoms, or bottoms joined together.	
480	All other wooden ware, not otherwise specified	Free.
481	Trees, bushes, plants, live	Free.
	Truffles. (*See* Champignons.)	
	Indian ink. (*See* Dyes, &c.)	
	Textile goods:	
	1. Painted, lacquered, varnished goods, impregnated or worked with india rubber, gutta-percha, or oil, likewise materials covered with paper pulp:	
482	*a.* Emery cloth and sand cloth	Free.
483	*b.* Carpets, tarpaulines, other goods of which a ¼-meter square weighs 470 grams or over, per kilogram	0.13
484	*c.* Bookbinders' cloth	Free.
485	*d.* Roller-blinds, per kilogram	1.07

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF IMPORT DUTIES, ETC.*—Continued.

Number.		Import duty.
	Textile goods—Continued.	
	1. Painted, lacquered, varnished goods, &c.—Continued.	*Crowns.*
486	*e.* Oil-skin and other goods, wholly or in part of silk, per kilogram	2. 67
487	*f.* Oil-cloth and other goods, not included in any of the above five classes, per kilogram	0. 67
	2. Made up or otherwise put together, which cannot be classed as dress-goods, shall pay duty according to material with an addition of 10 per cent. But no addition shall be charged for sails and bags, and when the articles are only stemmed or bound:	
	Hoops, for barrels. (*See* Wood.)	
489	Peat	Free.
	U.	
	Watches, clocks:	
490	1. Ladies' watches and pocket watches, including pocket chronometers, per piece	1, 00
	2. Clocks, with or without glass and stands:	
	a. In cases of metal or porcelain:	
491	*a.* Not weighing over 8 kilograms, per kilogram	1. 00
492	*β.* Over that weight, per kilogram	8. 00
	b. In cases of other materials:	
493	*a.* Not weighing over 5 kilograms, per kilogram	1. 00
494	*β.* Over that weight, per piece	5. 00
	3. Clocks for towers are dutiable as other goods of the same materials.	
495	4. Other clocks, per kilogram	0. 67
496	5. Clock-works put together without cases, per kilogram	2. 33. 3
	6. Clock cases of wood, as joiners' work	
	Clock cases of other materials, as clocks:	
497	7. Faces for the clocks specified under No. 4, above, per kilogram	0. 67
	8. Single parts of clocks and clock-works, according to material. Weights for clocks shall be rated separately.	
	Wool and woolen goods:	
498	1. Wool	Free.
	2. Woolen yarn:	
499	*a.* Not dyed, per kilogram	0. 13
	(In bond, 450 kilogram.)	
500	*b.* Dyed, also yarn of all descriptions combined with metal threads, per kilogram	0. 20
	(In bond, 300 kilograms.)	
501	3. Felts for machines, felts for paper machines, cloth-lists	Free.
502	Other felts, per kilogram	0. 80
503	Carpets and materials for carpets, bed-quilts, saddle-girths and woven girths, per kilogram	0. 47
	(In bond, 200 kilograms.)	
	Hats. (*See* letter H.)	
	6. Knit goods, knitted, croched, netted, or woven:	
504	*a.* Stockings, under shirts, gloves, coarse, per kilogram	0. 27
	(In bond, 225 kilograms.)	
505	*b.* Other, including woolen scarfs of all kinds, per kilogram	1. 07
	(In bond, 70 kilograms.)	
	OBS.—Stockings are reckoned as coarse when they have a length of 60 centimeters from the heel and weigh 160 grams or more per pair, and other lengths in the same proportion; gloves are reckoned as coarse when they have not more than one or two fingers. Shirts are considered coarse when each one with a length of 60 centimeters or more weighs 350 grams, and other lengths in the same proportion.	
	7. Haberdashery. (*See* letter P.)	
506	8. Ribbons and textile goods interwoven with india-rubber, gutta-percha and the like and belts thereof (as like cotton goods), per kilogram	1. 07
507	9. Blonde, bobbinet, lace and gauze (as similar goods of cotton), per kilogram	2. 50
508	10. Other open or clear goods, if either embroidered or woven in patterns, figures, stripes, or squares (embroidery on canvas excepted), per kilogram	1. 76
	OBS.—Goods shall be dutiable as open or clear, if intervals of a minimum thickness of one thread can be distinguished between the single threads outside the embroidery, or the interwoven close figures, stripes, &c., or, if this be impossible, when a piece of one-half meter square only 20 grams or less	
	11. Other woolen goods:	
509	*a.* Embroidered with silk or thread of metal, per kilogram	2. 33. 3
510	*b.* Otherwise, per kilogram	0. 80
	(In bond 75 kilograms.)	
	OBS.—Woolen goods in combination with silk (see silk goods) woolen goods in combination with hair (provided they are not rated under 'hair'), or other spinning materials, shall be rated as woolen goods.	
	V.	
	Walnuts. (*See* Nuts.)	
511	Water glass	Free.
	Vanilla. (*See* Spices.)	
	Scales. (*See* Instruments for weighing and measuring.)	
	Vermicelli. (*See* Italian paste.)	
	Ozier. (*See* Wood.)	

A.—*NORWEGIAN TARIFF OF EXPORT DUTIES.*

Number.		Import duty.
		Crowns.
512	Wine in casks or bottles, per kilogram	0. 16. 6
	(In bond, 7 kilograms.)	
	(Tare, casks 16 per cent.)	
513	Wine in bottles, per liter	0. 20. 5
	Lees of wine and mother of wine:	
	Fluid, as wine.	
514	Mixed with oatmeal or flour of rye in proportions of 13 hectograms to 1 hectoliter	Free.
515	Dry.	
	Grapes. (*See* Fruits.)	
	Tartar (crude and refined), including crystalli tartari and cremor tartari	Free.
	Tartaric acid, as citric acid.	
517	Vetch.	
	Game. (*See* Animals.)	
	Bows for violins and other bows for musical instruments. (*See* Instruments.)	
	Frankincense. (*See* Gums.)	
	Wire and wire-bands. (*See* Metals manufactured A. No. 15.)	
	Visiting cards. (*See* Paper.)	
518	Vitriol, of all kinds	Free.
	Vitriol oil. (*See* Sulphuric acid.)	
	Carriages and carts:	
519	1. Tram-cars, of all kinds, locomotives included	Free.
520	2. Children's carriages, per piece	2. 50
521	3. Carts, with two or four wheels, handcarts and wheelbarrows	Free.
522	4. Carriages, without upholsterers' work or leather work, per piece	8. 00
	Carriages with upholsterers' work.	
523	*a.* Four-wheeled, wholly or half roofed, including calashes with fixed or movable heads, per piece	30. 00
524	Other four-wheeled carriages, per piece	30. 00
525	*b.* Two-wheeled carriages, per piece	8. 00
	Grease. (*See* Lyes of fats.)	
526	Wax	Free.
527	Wax candles and wax tapers, per kilogram	0. 13
	Oil-cloth and oil skin. (*See* Textile goods.)	
	Wicks. (*See* Cotton goods.)	
528	Shuttles, healds, and pickers	Free.
	Z.	
	Bulbs. (*See* Flowers.)	
	Beer of all kinds, such as porter, ale, &c.:	0. 21
529	In bottles or jugs, per liter	0. 17
530	In other vessels, per kilogram	
	(Tare, casks 19 per cent.)	
532	Articles not belonging to any of the above specified	10 per cent.

B.—*TARIFF OF EXPORT DUTIES.*

	Export duty.
	Crowns.
Anchovies, as salted fish, 1 hectoliter	0. 02½
Wood for hoops as lumber.	
Bark, per ship ton	0. 03½
Bone, per ship ton	0. 80
(Fuel.) Firewood as lumber.	
Bottom pieces for casks, as lumber.	
Fish:	
1. Dried and smoked, per 100 kilograms	0. 27
2. Cured, per 100 kilograms	0. 09
3. Salted, of all kinds, in barrels, filled and not filled, per hectoliter	0. 02½
4. Salted in open sea and outside the coast, and then exported	Free.
Lobster, per piece	0. 00½
Clap-board as lumber.	
Spawn or roe	Free.
Staves as lumber.	
Train oil.	
Timber and lumber of all kinds:	
a Pieces over 19 decimeters in length, per ship ton	0. 80
b Smaller pieces, per ship ton	0. 03½
c In rafts, per cubic meter	0. 30

The duty will be charged on as many tons as are given in the vessel's register when the custom officers regard it as fully loaded, that is, when the hold of the vessel is fully loaded with timber, or it may be judged that it would have been fully loaded if the deck cargo also had been loaded in the hold. In the opposite case the duty shall be assessed on the real quality loaded in the vessel, whether the cargo be stored on the deck or the hold, at the same time never paying for more tons than are entered on the ship's register. No duty shall be charged when the lumber occupies less than one ton's space.

If lumber dutiable at different rates of export duty be exported in the same vessel, such duty shall be charged:

A. For the whole lot at the lower rate where the lumber dutiable at the higher rate consists only of boards to cover the deck cargo or spars necessary for the ship's use.

B. For the cargo below deck at the lower rate and for the deck cargo at the higher, when the former consists exclusively of pieces not exceeding 19 decimeters in length, and the latter of wooden goods of greater length for the most part than mentioned in letter A, according to which estimate the cargo under deck shall be estimated at seven-eighths, and the cargo on deck at one-eighth of the measured tonnage of the vessel.

C. In other cases for the whole lot at the higher rate.

Articles not belonging to any classes subject to export duty, shall be exempt of duty.

We hereby most graciously order that the foregoing decree of the Storthing shall be put in force.

Given at the palace of Stockholm on the 18th of June, 1881.

Under the seal of the Kingdom.

In the absence of His Majesty, my most gracious King and Lord.

GUSTAF.

R. KICRULF,
LEHMANN.

HAWAIIAN TARIFF.

REPORT BY CONSUL M'KINLEY, OF HONOLULU.

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of department circular of December 1, 1881, and in compliance with the request contained therein I inclose a copy of the "Hawaiian Tariff and Digest," corrected to date by the collector general of customs; also a copy of the tariff act of 1878.

D. A. McKINLEY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Honolulu, February 17, 1882.

TARIFF, OR RATES OF DUTIES ON ALL GOODS, WARES, AND MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO THE HAWAIIAN KINGDOM.

FREE IMPORTS.

Animals, birds, bees, intended for improving the breeds. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Bags and containers (old) returned, when accompanied by certificate of Hawaiian consul. (Regulation of April 17, 1867.)
Books printed in Hawaiian. (Act of July 6, 1866.)
Catechu. (*See* Tanning.)
Coals. (Act of Dec. 31, 1864.)
Copper sheathing and all description of sheathing metal. (Act of June 22, 1868.)
Diplomatic representatives. All goods imported for their private use and consumption. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Foreign navies. All supplies when imported and used as such. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Foreign whalers. Merchandise imported by them in accordance with the provisions of secs. 569 to 573 of the civil code. Gold and silver coins. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
His Majesty. All goods or other articles imported for his use. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Hawaiian Government. All goods or articles imported for the use of the several departments of the government. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Hawaiian whalers. Oil, bone, fish, or other products of the sea, being the catch of duly registered Hawaiian vessels. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Household effects, old and in use, of persons arriving from abroad; also the effects, not merchandise, of Hawaiian subjects dying abroad. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Iron. All pig iron, and plate iron of $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch in thickness and upwards. (Act of June 17, 1862.)
Models of inventions, if not fitted for use. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Oak bark. (*See* Tanning.)
Oil, bone, &c. (*See* Hawaiian Whalers.)
Plants and seeds, when not intended for sale. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Philosophical, chemical, and other apparatus for the use of schools and colleges. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Returned cargo, being merchandise exported to a foreign country and brought back in the same condition as when exported, accompanied by certificate of Hawaiian consul. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code, and regulation of April 17, 1867.)
Specie. (*See* Gold and silver coins.)
Specimens of botany, mineralogy, geology, and other natural sciences, for the use of schools and colleges. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Tanning. Certain material used in. Oak bark, catechu, and other substances containing "tanin." (Act of June 22, 1868.)
Tools of trade, professional books and implements in actual use of persons from abroad. (Sec. 517, art. 6, civil code.)
Yellow metal. (*See* Copper.)

DUTIABLE IMPORTS.

Alcohol, and other spirits of the strength of alcohol, $10 per gallon.
Alcohol, provided that security be given that the same is intended for medicinal, mechanical, or scientific purposes, upon application in due form, 50 per cent. ad valorem.
Ale, porter, beer, cider, and other fermented beverages, below eighteen per cent. of alcoholic strength, 40 cents per dozen quarts; 20 cents per dozen pints; 15 cents per gallon, in bulk.
Bitters. (*See* Brandy and Wine.)
* Brandy, gin, rum, whisky, liqueurs, cordials, bitters, brandied fruits, perfumery, and other articles of merchandise, sweetened or mixed, containing alcohol or spirits, of the strength of thirty per cent. or upwards and not exceeding fifty-five per cent. of alcohol, $3 per gallon.
Brandied fruits. (*See* Brandy.)
Cigars. (*See* Tobacco.)
Coffee, the product of any country with which this government has no existing treaty, 3 cents per pound.
Coffee, all other, 10 per cent. ad valorem.
Cordials. (*See* Brandy and Wine.)
Gin. (*See* Brandy.)
Liqueurs. (*See* Brandy.)
Molasses and sirups of sugar, the product of any country with which this government has no existing treaty, 10 cents per gallon.
Molasses, all other, 10 per cent. ad valorem.
† Opium and all manufactures thereof, 15 per cent. ad valorem.
Peppermint. (*See* Brandy.)
Perfumery. (*See* Brandy.)
Porter. (*See* Ale.)
Rice, cleaned, 2½ cents per pound; in the husk, 1½ cents per pound.
Rum. (*See* Brandy.)
Sugar, 2½ cents per pound.
Tobacco and all manufactures thereof, 15 per cent. ad valorem.
Whisky. (*See* Brandy.)
Wines. Madeira, sherry, port, and all other wines, cordials and bitters, and all other articles of merchandise contained or preserved in alcohol or spirits, above eighteen per cent. and below thirty per cent. of alcoholic strength, $2 per gallon.
Wines. Champagne, claret, ginger wine, California wines, Rhine wines, quinine wine, and all other wines, bitters, and cordials of a higher quality than wines of "Cargaison," when below eighteen per cent. of alcoholic strength, 40 cents per dozen quarts; 20 cents per dozen pints; 15 cents per gallon in bulk.

Upon all other goods, wares, and merchandise of whatever description imported into this kingdom, there shall be levied, collected and paid, a duty of ten per cent. ad valorem, including all charges as per original invoice, except the following:

Cigarettes and paper cigars, 25 per cent. ad valorem.
Pipe and pipe fixtures, 25 per cent. ad valorem.
Candies, 25 per cent. ad valorem.
Peanut oil, 25 per cent. ad valorem.
Fire-works and fire-crackers, 25 per cent. ad valorem.
Kid, leather gloves, and gauntlets, per dozen pair, $3.
Camphor trunks, each, 50 cents.
China matting, per roll, $1.

All invoices of merchandise presented at any of the custom-houses of this kingdom, for entry, must be accompanied by the certificate of the Hawaiian consul at the port of shipment, otherwise 25 per cent. will be added to the original value and the usual duties levied on the increased value thereof.

NOTE.—There are no transit or export duties or charges other than the cost of entry forms, as required by law.

* The instruments used for ascertaining the alcoholic strength of spirits, wines, perfumery, &c., are the "Alcoomètre Centésimal" of M. Gay-Lussac, and the "Thermomètre Alcoométrique" of Lerebours & Secretan.

† Contraband. Opium can only be imported by such persons as may be duly licensed by the minister of the interior, to import and sell.

Arrival and Entry of Vessels.

MERCHANTMEN.

The commanding officer of any merchant vessel, immediately after her arrival at either of the legalized ports of entry, shall made known to the collector of customs the business upon which said vessel has come to this port, and deliver him, under oath, a full, true, and perfect manifest of the cargo with which said vessel is laden before allowing any parcels to be landed, except the *mail bags*, delivered to the order of the postmaster; which manifest shall contain an account of the packages with their marks, numbers, contents, and quantities, also the names of the importers, or consignees, and shippers.

And furnish him with a list of all her passengers before allowing any baggage to be landed.

And deliver him, under oath, a list of all stores on board his vessel, under penalty of forfeiting all stores not mentioned in such list and a fine of one hundred dollars.

When any such officer shall fail to perform any or all of the acts above mentioned, within forty-eight hours after his arrival, he shall be subjected to a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

All letters under the care of the captain, or within his power, except such as are directed to the owner or consignee of the vessel, must be delivered to the postmaster of the port before entry can be made or report received.

All goods imported in any vessel and which are not included in her inward manifest shall be liable to seizure and confiscation, and the vessel and master shall be liable to a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

When all the goods included in the inward manifest are not produced or accounted for, to the collector, the vessel and master shall be liable for the appraised value of such deficiency and the duties thereon, together with a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

No goods or articles of any description shall be landed at any of the ports of this kingdom on any Sunday or national holiday, nor on other days, except between sunrise and sunset, nor until the same shall have been duly entered at the custom-house and landing permit issued, under penalty of seizure and confiscation.

WHALEMEN.

Masters of whaling vessels shall enter their vessels at the custom-house within forty-eight hours after their arrival at either of the ports of entry, and previous to discharging or shipping any seamen, or taking off any supplies or stores, under penalty of not less than ten, nor more than one hundred dollars.

They shall also, within the time above stated, furnish under oath a list of all wines and spirits on board as stores, and a manifest of all cargo and freight except the produce of their fishery and the outfit, provisions and furniture of their vessel, under penalty of forfeiting all such stores, cargo, and freight as are not on the list of stores or manifest, and a fine of one hundred dollars.

Every master of a whaling vessel, who shall have duly entered his vessel at the custom-house, shall be entitled to a permit from the collector to trade or barter goods for refreshment and supplies to the amount of twelve hundred dollars, original invoice value, two hundred dollars of which shall be free of duties.

This privilege to trade or barter may be used at one or more ports of the kingdom, but shall not be construed so as to permit any such vessel to trade or barter goods to a greater amount in all than twelve hundred dollars during one visit to the kingdom.

Whalers' permits do not include the trade, sale, landing, or disposal of spirituous liquors, and all such traffic on the part of whaling vessels shall subject them to all the charges of merchant vessels and to all other legal liabilities.

The same duties shall be exacted of whaling vessels as are exacted of merchant vessels for any goods landed or disposed of by them, exceeding the value of two hundred dollars; and in case such excess amounts to more than one thousand dollars, they shall be deemed in law to have become merchantmen, and be subjected to all the charges of merchant vessels.

All articles to be landed on whalers' permit must be entered upon it with ink, and the value carried out, before leaving the vessel.

Every master of a whaling vessel who shall fail to produce his permit, when called for by any officer of customs, shall be liable to a fine of not less than ten nor more than fifty dollars, to be imposed by the collector.

CUSTOM-HOUSE GUARDS.

The collector shall provide an officer to be present on board any vessel during her discharge, or at any other time when he may deem it necessary, to superintend the landing of her cargo, and see that no other or greater amount of goods are landed than is set forth upon the permit to discharge.

It shall be the duty of the commanding officer of any vessel when boarded by an officer of the customs to furnish him promptly with any and all information which he may require in regard to the vessel, her cargo, stores, passengers, &c., and exhibit for his inspection her manifest, register, or other papers relating to the same.

Every vessel of not more than five hundred tons shall be allowed six days, and every vessel of five hundred tons and upwards shall be allowed twelve days after entry in which to discharge; but for all days in excess, the compensation of the officer superintending the landing of the cargo shall be a charge against the vessel. Sundays and holidays shall not be counted in the number of days allowed for discharge at the expense of the government.

PASSENGERS.

If the master of any vessel, arriving at any port of entry of this kingdom from a foreign port, shall suffer the baggage of any passenger on board of his vessel to to removed on shore from such vessel, unless a permit therefor has been obtained from the collector of the port, such master shall be liable to a fine not exceeding fifty dollars, in the discretion of the collector of customs.

If any passenger, arriving at a port of entry of this kingdom, on board of a vessel coming from a foreign port, shall remove his baggage on shore from such vessel, without first obtaining a permit therefor from the collector of the port, such passenger shall be liable to a fine not exceeding fifty dollars, in the discretion of the court.

Any passenger arriving from a foreign port, at any of the ports of this kingdom, shall be subject to a tax of two dollars for the support of hospitals for the benefit of sick and disabled Hawaiian seamen, which shall be paid to the several collectors of customs before any permit is issued to such passenger to land his baggage.

If the master of any vessel shall allow any passenger to land his baggage or other effects, at any port of this kingdom, without payment of the aforesaid tax, he shall be liable therefor, and also to a penalty of not less than ten nor more than fifty dollars, to be imposed by the collector in his discretion; such baggage or other effects shall also be subject to seizure and sale.

MARINE HOSPITAL TAX.

The master or owner of every ship or vessel under the Hawaiian flag, arriving from any foreign port or from sea, at any port of the Hawaiian Kingdom, shall, before such ship is admitted to entry, render to the collector of such port a true account of the number of seamen who have been employed on board since the last entry at any Hawaiian port, and pay to said collector at the rate of twenty-five cents per month for each and every seaman so employed, for the benefit of the marine hospital fund, which amount such master or owner is authorized to retain out of the wages of said seamen.

The master of every coasting vessel, employed in the carrying trade between the different ports, roadsteads or harbors of the Hawaiian Kingdom, shall render quarterly, to the collector general of customs, or to any collector under his directions, a true list of all seamen employed by him during the preceding three months; and pay to said collector general or collector, at the rate of twenty-five cents per month, for each and every seaman so employed, for the benefit of the marine hospital fund; which sum said master is authorized to retain out of the wages of such seaman.

The returns required as above shall be made under oath, in such manner and form as the collector general may prescribe. If any owner or master shall make a false return, he shall be deemed guilty of perjury and punished accordingly. He shall also be subject to a penalty of one hundred dollars, for the benefit of the said marine hospital fund, and his vessel shall be liable to seizure, condemnation and sale, to secure the payment of such penalty.

PASSPORTS.

Every adult who may have resided on these islands for more than thirty days, wishing to leave the kingdom, shall make application to the collector of the port from which he intends to sail, for a passport.

It shall be lawful for the collectors of customs to grant passports to all applicants for the same, except in the following cases:

First. In case of the indebtedness or obligation to pay money, of the applicant, to the government or to any private individual, of which the collector has received written notice, accompanied by a request not to grant a passport.

Second. In case the applicant is a party defendant in a suit, civil or criminal, pending before any court in this kingdom, of which the collector shall have received written notice.

Third. In case of a writ of *ne exeat regno*, or any other process to arrest or stay the departure of the applicant, shall have been issued by any court of the kingdom, of which the collector shall have received notice in writing.

Fourth. In case of a written complaint being made to the collector that the applicant is about to depart the kingdom, leaving his wife or family unprovided for.

Every collector of customs may, after granting a passport, cancel the same, upon being satisfied that it was obtained by any deceit or misrepresentation; or that the permission to leave the kingdom will work great wrong or injustice to the government, or to any individual.

Every master or commanding officer of a vessel who shall convey out of this kingdom any person not having a passport, shall be subject to a fine of fifty dollars and be liable for all debts which such person may have left unpaid in this kingdom. And if he shall fail to pay such fine and debts, such vessel shall be subject to seizure, condemnation and sale for the payment thereof; provided always that these provisions shall not be construed as applicable to any seaman legally shipped on board of any vessel.

Charge for passport, protest (price of stamp), $3.

Charge for passport (price of stamp), $1.

A sworn statement of account must be filed in the collector's office within 10 days after protest has been made.

CUSTOM-HOUSE.—STORAGE REGULATIONS.

The expense of putting in, stowing, and taking out of stores will be borne by the importers or owners. Any loss by leakage, breakage, or fire shall be at the responsibility of the party or parties who place the goods in store.

SPIRITUOUS LIQUORS.

The importer is permitted to take out as a sample of each kind and quality one bottle for every one hundred gallons, and one bottle for every fifty cases, free of duty; but for every succeeding sample there will be a charge of one dollar for each bottle.

Before taking a package out of the stores the importer will present an order to the collector, giving the marks, numbers, and contents thereof, and stating whether it is intended for exportation or consumption.

If the liquor to be withdrawn is intended for consumption the duties must then be paid; but if it is intended for exportation an outward entry must be made in the usual form, stating by whom it is to be exported, date of inward entry, vessel's and master's name by which imported and by which it is to be exported.

All liquors in casks will be gauged as they are taken out of the stores for consumption, and duties charged only upon the quantity delivered.

Liquors taken out of the stores for exportation or consumption must not be in less quantities than a single and original package. (Exceptions are made where the package is a hogshead or pipe.)

OTHER GOODS.

Goods taken from the stores must be in original packages. If for consumption, not less than one hundred dollars in value will be delivered, or the remainder of an importation. Nothing less than a whole package will be delivered, except as samples, and then in the least quantity that will make a fair sample. In ordering goods out of the bonded stores for exportation or consumption the same form must be observed as with spirits.

RATES OF STORAGE.

For liquors in casks and kegs, 1 cent per gallon per month.
For liquors in cases, ¼ cent per gallon per month.
For bags of flour (200 pounds), 4 cents each per month; other sizes in proportion.
For barrels of flour, meal, and bread, 4 cents each per month.
For barrels of bottled ale, beer, and porter (4 dozen each), 4 cents each per month.
For cases of bottled ale, beer, and porter (4 dozen each), 4 cents each per month.
For barrels of beef, pork, and fish, 5 cents each per month.
For barrels of pitch and tar, 7 cents each per month.
For bundles, shooks, and casks' heads and hoops, 1 cent per barrel per month.
For whaleboats, $1 each per month.
Goods (except the above named), 40 cents per ton per month.

QUANTITY OF GOODS TO COMPOSE A TON.

Forty feet (cubic measure); 2,000 pounds pig and bar iron, sugar, rice, nails, and similar articles; 200 gallons (wine measure), reckoning the full contents of the cask, of oil, vinegar, lime-juice, ale, beer, and porter, not bottled.

Not less than one month's storage to be charged, and (after the first month) if less than twelve days, nothing; over twelve days, a full month.

From the date of each transfer the storage commences anew.

Storage bills on liquors will be rendered every quarter; on other goods every six months, or as required.

COASTERS.

The collector general of customs, under the direction of the minister of the interior, shall grant a coasting license for one year to any Hawaiian registered vessel, the owner of which shall have applied to him in writing, setting forth the vessel's name, with the date and number of her register, which license shall be in such form as may be approved by the minister of the interior.

Upon granting such license, the collector general of customs shall exact of the owner a bond, with at least one approved surety, in the penal sum of five hundred dollars, in such form and upon such condition as may be approved by the minister of the interior.

Any vessel which shall engage in the coasting trade of this kingdom without a license, shall be liable to seizure condemnation and sale.

The minister of the interior shall have power to establish rules for the guidance and government of all vessels engaged in the coasting trade, and in case any such vessel shall violate any of the said rules, he shall have the power to annul its license. He may also at any time impress any licensed coaster into the public service, upon just compensation, to be afterwards assessed by the court of admiralty of this kingdom.

All vessels engaged in the coasting trade shall carry the inter-island mails, free of charge, under such regulations as may from time to time be provided by law, or prescribed by the minister of the interior, upon pain of forfeiting their licenses.

It shall not be lawful for any vessel to carry passengers between the different islands of this kindgom, except such vessels as shall be especially licensed for that purpose, under a penalty of twenty dollars for each passenger so carried, to be recovered before any police or district justice.

Before obtaining the said license, it shall be necessary that the vessel shall be thoroughly inspected by the harbor master of Honolulu, one of the pilots of said port, and some shipwright, to be appointed for that purpose by the collector general of customs; and if the said inspectors shall certify the vessel to be staunch and well equipped, and of sufficient capacity and accommodations to carry passengers, the owner of such vessel shall be entitled to receive a license from the collector general to carry passengers between the islands for one year, subject to all the passport regulations for carrying of females, as provided by law.

No vessel shall carry more than one passenger for every two tons, registered burthen, excepting steam vessels, the same being allowed to carry two passengers for every three tons' burthen; and in case of any violation thereof, the master of such vessel shall be liable to a fine of five dollars for each passenger so carried, the same to be recovered before any police or district justice.

Each vessel licensed to carry passengers between the islands, shall carry on all her passages, secured on deck, one spare extra cask of the capacity of at least two barrels, filled with water; and under her deck, easily accessible, as many barrels of good sound bread or rice and salt provisions and water as may, from time to time, be required by the harbor master of Honolulu; and for disobedience of the orders of the harbor master, by not carrying the amount of water and provisions required by him, the vessel shall be liable to have her license revoked by the collector general, and the master shall be further liable to a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars, to be recovered before any police or district justice.

COASTING CHARGES.

Coasting license.

To 25 tons	$1 00 per ton.
Each additional ton	50 per ton.
License blank	1 00 stamp.
License bond	1 00 stamp.

Passenger license.

Less than 80 tons	50 per ton.
From 80 to 100 tons	40 00
Over 100 tons	50 00
Inspector's fee	9 00
License blank	1 00 stamp.

Marine-hospital tax.

For each man	25 per month.
Crew-list each quarter	1 00 stamp.

Light dues.

Each year	10 per ton.

LIGHT DUES.

There shall be levied upon all vessels arriving from abroad at any port of this kingdom where a light-house may be established the sum of three dollars, which shall be paid before departure to the collector-general of customs.

All vessels engaged in the coasting trade shall pay 10 cents per ton as light money, in consideration of which they shall be entitled to visit all ports where light-houses may be established, for the term of one year, without further charge.

DEPARTURE OF VESSELS.

Any vessel having, through her master or agent, fully complied with the laws and regulations affecting foreign trade, and with all the laws regulating the shipment and discharge of Hawaiian seamen, shall be entitled to depart after receiving from the collector of the port a clearance in the form provided by law.

In case any vessel does not sail within forty-eight hours after receiving a clearance, it shall be the duty of the master to report the same to the collector of the port, under a penalty of not exceeding twenty-five dollars, to be imposed by said collector.

No vessel shall be entitled to a clearance unless all proper charges at the harbor-master's office shall have been settled; and the collector may require the master or agent of the vessel to produce the harbor-master's certificate to that effect.

To entitle any vessel to a clearance, it shall be incumbent on her commanding officer first to furnish the collector of the port with a manifest of the cargo laden on board of such vessel, which manifest shall be given under oath; contain a full statement of all the goods on board, expressing contents, quantities, and value, and distinguishing between domestic, foreign, and transshipped goods, and shall also contain a list of all stores taken from bond.

He shall also furnish, in proper form, a list of all passengers intending to depart in said vessel.

When goods are exported from bond it is necessary that the person exporting the same shall make an outward entry at the custom-house, in the form required by law; which said entry must be made before the clearance of the vessel in which the same are to be exported.

If any vessel shall sail from any port in this kingdom without first obtaining a clearance, the commanding officer thereof shall be subject to a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, in the discretion of the court; for the payment of which fine the vessel shall be liable to seizure, condemnation, and sale.

PORTS OF ENTRY.

No goods of foreign growth or production shall be landed or unladen from a foreign vessel, or Hawaiian vessel from a foreign port, at any other port of the Hawaiian Islands than a port of entry for foreign vessels, as created by law, under a penalty of seizure and forfeiture of the vessel in which such goods shall be brought, and of the goods imported therein, and so landed or unladen. And in passing from port to port no foreign vessel shall engage in the coasting trade of this kingdom.

The following are the legal ports of entry:

Honolulu, island of Oahu; Lahaina, island of Maui; Hilo, island of Hawaii; Kawaihae, island of Hawaii; Kealakekua, island of Hawaii; Koloa, island of Kauai; Kahului, island of Maui.

In addition to the above, foreign vessels engaged in the whale fishery shall have access to the following port for the purpose of recruiting and refreshment: Hanalei, island of Kauai.

It shall be lawful for any vessel from abroad, with the written permit of the collector-general of customs, to proceed to any other port or place in the kingdom, not a port of entry, for the purpose debarking cargo, the duties upon which have been paid, or of embarking cargo, or of obtaining refreshment.

Collectors of customs at other ports in the kingdom than Honolulu, may grant such permits for their respective collection districts.

REGULATION CONCERNING STAMPS AND BLANKS ON INWARD ENTRIES.

On and after March 11, 1864, the charges for stamps and blanks on invoices valued at ten dollars and under, will be one dollar; on invoices valued over ten dollars and not exceeding twenty dollars, one dollar and a half; on invoices valued over twenty dollars, the usual charge of two dollars and a half.

W. F. ALLEN,
Collector-General of Customs.

REGULATION CONCERNING RETURN GOODS, EMPTY BAGS, CONTAINERS, &C.

From and after the 1st of June, 1867, it will be required that all invoices of "return goods, empty bags," &c., intended to be entered free, must be accompanied by the Hawaiian consul's, of port of shipment, certificate that they are the same goods and in original packages as shipped from this port.

W. F. ALLEN,
Collector-General of Customs.

Approved.

STEPHEN H. PHILLIPS,
Minister of Finance, ad interim.

CUSTOM-HOUSE CHARGES.

For visit of health officer when required	$5 00
When necessarily detained on board.....per day..	10 00
For bill of health on departure	1 00
Pilot's and boarding officer's fees. (*See* Pilotage.)	
Buoys	2 00
Lights, vessels from abroad	3 00
Lights, coasters, each year.....per ton..	10
Inward or outward manifests	2 00
Mail oath	1 00
Inward entry, goods paying duties	2 50
Inward entry, goods bonded	4 50
Outward entry, goods bonded	1 50
Transit entry	2 50
Bond to secure payment of duties	2 00
Passports	1 00
Every stamped certificate or blank furnished by the collector	1 00
Recording bill of sale, mortgage, or hypothecation of a vessel, or copying the same, or copying certificate of registry, per one hundred words	50

The custom-house charges for all other acts and duties not expressly provided for by law, as also the rates of storage, shall be such as may from time to time be prescribed by the minister of finance.

PORT REGULATIONS.

PILOTAGE.

Upon the arrival of any vessel making the usual marine signal for a pilot, it shall be the duty of the pilot at the port to immediately put off to such vessel, taking with him a white and a yellow flag; to inquire into the sanitary condition of the ship and the health of those on board; and upon being assured to his satisfaction that there is no danger to be apprehended from any contagious disease, he shall board such vessel, but not otherwise.

Upon boarding the vessel the pilot shall present the commanding officer with a health certificate to be signed by him, and in case the same shall be signed, the white flag shall be immediately hoisted at the main, and the pilot shall be at liberty to bring the vessel into port; but in case the commanding officer shall decline to sign the certificate of health the pilot shall deliver him a yellow flag, which the master shall hoist at the main, and the vessel shall be placed in quarantine, outside of the harbor, and anchored where the pilot may direct.

Any pilot who shall conduct a vessel into any port in this kingdom, in violation of the provisions of this law, or any of the regulations of the board of health, or know-

ing that there is just ground to suspect the existence of contagion on board, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding five hundred dollars.

Every vessel, the master of which shall have declined to sign a certificate of health as above prescribed, shall, upon entering port, be liable to seizure, confiscation, and sale.

If the pilot, after boarding any vessel, shall discover the existence of a contagious disease, he shall not return on shore, neither shall it be lawful for any of the ship's company or passengers to land or communicate with the shore, or board any other vessel, without permission of the board of health, or the collector, under penalty of a fine not exceeding five hundred dollars.

The pilots of Honolulu shall bring the vessel which they may take charge of, fully within the harbor (within the inner buoy, unless otherwise directed by the harbor master) and anchor her in a suitable and convenient place, under penalty of forfeiting their commission.

No pilot shall take out any vessel that may be under attachment or arrest by virtue of any process, nor before she has obtained her clearance, under penalty of forfeiting his commission and paying a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

If any foreign vessel, or Hawaiian vessel engaged in foreign trade, shall enter or depart from any of the ports for which pilots may be appointed, without a pilot, such vessel shall be liable to one-half pilotage.

All vessels anchoring outside the reef at Honolulu shall, when so requested by the harbor master or any pilot, change their anchorage and anchor in such place as he may direct, under penalty of a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars.

At ports where there are no pilots, the regularly appointed boarding officers shall do and perform all the duties prescribed for pilots.

The pilot's fees, boarding officer's fees, and health fees shall form a part of the port charges, which shall be paid by every vessel to the collector of the port before a clearance is granted.

Pilots' fees, from May 30, 1874.

Health fee		$5 00
On all war vessels, mail steamers, and vessels under 200 tons	per foot	1 50
On all other vessels over 200 tons	per ton	05
But no vessel to be charged more than $50, in or out.		
For anchoring a vessel outside		15 00
In case said vessel comes into the harbor		10 00

Towage rates, from June 19, 1874.

Ships and barks under 500 tons	$40 00
Ships and barks over 500 tons	45 00
Ships and barks over 1,000 tons	50 00
Whalemen	40 00
Brigs and schooners over 200 tons	35 00
Brigs and schooners under 200 tons	30 00

HARBOR REGULATIONS.

The harbor masters of Honolulu and Hilo shall have authority over the anchoring, mooring, and making fast of all hulks, coasters, boats, and other craft in their respective harbors, and are charged in general with the enforcement of all harbor regulations.

They shall also be wharfingers at the ports for which they are appointed.

They shall be entitled to receive, in addition to their usual fees, all amounts disbursed by them for the use of boats, warps, and labor in mooring and making fast any vessel, and if necessarily detained on board more than two hours at any one time, they shall be paid at the rate of one dollar per hour for such extra detention.

All vessels that may enter any port shall be anchored in the place designated by the harbor master, and moved from one anchorage to another as he may direct; and no vessel, excepting coasting vessels under fifty tons burthen and vessels about to leave the harbor, shall quit her anchorage or moorings until the commanding officer shall have received the written permission of the harbor master, under penalty of a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars.

The harbor master or any pilot, while removing a vessel from one anchorage or mooring to another, may make fast to any other vessel, or to any warp or wharf; and any person resisting the same, cutting away or casting off the warp or fastening, shall be subject to a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars; and if such person belong to any vessel, the master of such vessel shall be responsible for any damage resulting from such resistance, cutting away or casting off, as well as for the fine imposed upon the offender.

In order to facilitate the removing and placing of vessels in their proper berths, all

vessels in the harbor shall, when requested by the harbor master or any pilot, slack down their steam cables and other fastenings, and also their bower chains, under penalty of a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars.

All vessels entering port shall, if so requested by the harbor master or any pilot, rig in her jib, flying jib and spanker booms and spritsail yards, and top their lower and topsail yards, within twenty-four hours after anchoring in such port, and in all cases before attempting to come alongside of or make fast to either of the docks or wharves, and keep them so rigged in and topped until within twenty-four hours before leaving the harbor, and until after removing from any wharf or dock, under penalty of a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars.

No combustible materials such as pitch, tar, rosin, or oil, shall be heated on board any vessel within the harbor of Honolulu; but all such combustible articles shall be heated either on shore, or in a boat, or on a raft, at a reasonable distance from the vessel, of which distance the harbor master shall be the judge. Every person violating the provisions of this section shall be liable to a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars.

No stones or other rubbish shall be thrown from any vessel into the harbor of Honolulu or Hilo, under penalty of a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars; and the master of the vessel from which the same are thrown shall be subject to a like fine.

Any person who shall leave or cause to be left, for the space of six hours, upon the shores or reefs of any harbor in this kingdom, any dead animal, shall be subject to a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars, and shall cause the same to be removed without delay.

Every vessel taking on board or discharging any ballast or coals within the harbor of Honolulu shall have a tarpaulin properly stretched and spread so as to prevent any from falling into the water, under penalty of a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars.

No vessel having gunpowder on board will be permitted to remain at the wharf more than twelve hours, and if the vessel shall be at the wharf over night a policeman or watchman shall be kept on duty on board all night. All gunpowder deposited on the wharf for shipment shall be immediately passed on board the vessel to receive the same.

HARBOR MASTER'S CHARGES.

Wharfage.

Per registered ton (Sundays and government holidays not counted).. 2 cents per day.

Storage.

Bricks, coal, coolers, kettles, stone ballast, sand (space of 32 square feet measurement)	1 cent per day.
Oil, on wharves, for every 10 barrels	1 cent per day.
Lumber, firewood (space of 32 square feet measurement)	1 cent per day.
Anchors, chains, pig ballast, and old iron, per ton of 2,000 pounds	½ cent per day.

Harbor master's fees.

Boarding vessel on arrival	$3 00
Boarding vessel on departure	3 00
Moving vessel, each time	3 00

Shipping and discharging native seamen.

Shipping, each man	$0 50
Discharging, each man	50
Government tax, each man	6 00
Shipping articles	stamp. 1 00
Application to governor	do.... 1 00
Master's bond	do.... 1 00

(All the above charges must be paid by the ship.)

Discharging foreign seamen.

Seaman's permit, each man	$0 50
Seaman's bond, each man	1 00
Permit for deserter to ship	50

BOAT REGULATIONS, PORT OF HONOLULU.

The owner of any boat duly licensed for the harbor of Honolulu shall be entitled, if hired on time, to charge one dollar for each passenger for the first hour, and fifty

cents for each succeeding hour, if the boat have four or more oars, and only half these fares if the boat have less than four oars.

If hired by distance, twenty-five cents for each passenger to and from any ship or point within the inner buoy; fifty cents to and from any point between the inner and outer buoys; and two dollars to and from any ship or point in the anchorage outside of the buoys, if the boat have four oars, and only half of said fares if the boat have less than four oars; provided, always, that if the boat shall be detained by any passenger alongside of any ship, or at any point, over fifteen minutes, the owner shall be entitled to charge fifty cents additional for every half hour of such detention.

Any person plying a licensed boat, who shall refuse to take a passenger at the rates prescribed in the preceding sections, or who shall charge any person more than the said rates, shall be fined five dollars.

Every person hiring any such boat shall be entitled to carry with him, free of charge, one hundred pounds of luggage or goods, and no more; and for all extra luggage or goods he shall pay according to agreement with the person plying the boat.

LIGHT-HOUSES.

HONOLULU.

A light-house has been erected on the inner edge of the Western Reef, bounding the entrance of the channel into Honolulu Harbor. The light is a Fresnel of the fourth order, at an elevation of 26 feet above the sea level, and can be seen from the deck of an ordinary-sized vessel at a distance of 9 nautical miles, in a radius from S.E by E. to W. from the light-house.

From the light-house the spar or fairway buoy bears (magnetic) S. 11° W., 6¼ cables; the eastern end of the new wharf, N. 35° E., 1¼ cables; Diamond Point, S. 56° E.; Barber's Point, S. 88° W., and the eastern corner of the custom-house, N. 15° E., near to which corner another light-tower has been erected, at an elevation of 28 feet above the sea level, and can be seen about 5 miles out at sea. The light in this tower is green.

To enter the harbor by night, bring these two lights in one, bearing N. 15° E. (magnetic), and keep them in one till within a cable's length of the light-house on the reef, when by hauling a point to the eastward you will avoid the end of the spit on which the light-house is built, extending off from it about 25 feet to the eastward. Steer for the east end of the new wharf, and when half-way between the light on the reef and the new wharf, keep away N.W. and along the esplanade to an anchorage inside. All bearings magnetic.

HILO, HAWAII.

A light-house has been erected at Paukaa Point, entrance to Hilo Harbor, Hawaii. The light is at an elevation of fifty feet above the sea level, a plain fixed light, and can be seen easily ten miles out at sea. From the light-house the outer point of the reef bears S. 58° E.; inner point of the reef, S. 39° E.; Governess' flagstaff (about the center of the harbor), S. 22° E.; Leleiwi Point, S. 79° E.; and Makahanaloa Point, N. 2° W. Bearings magnetic.

KAWAIHAE, HAWAII.

For the anchorage at Kawaihae a white light, about fifty feet above the sea level, has been erected, at a point bearing from the northeast corner of the reef N. E. by N. ½ N. The light can be seen at a distance of ten miles out at sea. With this light bearing E. N. E. there is good anchorage in eight fathoms of water, about a quarter of a mile from the shore. All bearings magnetic.

LAHAINA, MAUI.

A light-house has been erected at the landing, port of Lahaina. The window on the sea side of the light-room is of 20×24-inch glass, with red glass at the northwest and southeast end. The colored glass stands at equal angles, side and front, and a vessel in ten fathoms of water will have two bright lights for about half a mile each way from directly in front of the light-house. At a greater distance, it will show a colored light until the lights almost appear like one, or the red light like a reflection from the other light. The light towards Molokai is the brightest, so that the lights now have the appearance of a large and small light close together. The lights stand about 26 feet above the water, and can be seen across the Lanai channel.

TARIFF ACT. 1878.

AN ACT to amend an act entitled "An act to increase the import duties upon certain goods," approved the 27th day of September, A. D. 1876.

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the King and the Legislative Assembly of the Hawaiian Islands in the Legislature of the Kingdom assembled: That section 1 of an act to increase the import duties on certain goods, approved the 27th day of September, A. D. 1876, be and the same is hereby amended to read as follows: Section 1. There shall be levied, collected, and paid upon the following goods imported into this kingdom duties *ad valorem* as follows, to wit:

Silks, satins, and silk velvet, and all articles of which silk shall form the principal material, ten per cent.:

Clothing ready-made, and wearing apparel of every description, made up in whole or in part, ten per cent.;

Carriages of all descriptions, ten per cent.;

Hats and caps of all kinds, ten per cent.;

Linens, and all manufactures of which flax, grass cloth or a similar material shall form the principal part, ten per cent.;

Crockery and glassware of every description, ten per cent.;

Drugs and medicines, patent and other, ten per cent.;

Furniture of all kinds, if upholstered or carved, manufactured in whole or in part, ten per cent.;

Millinery goods, beads, braids, bonnets, buttons, corsets, collars, sleeves and cuffs, edgings, flowers (artificial), feathers (fancy), fringes for clothing, and for upholstery, ten per cent.;

Gloves and mitts not otherwise provided for, ten per cent.;

Gimps for clothing, ten per cent.;

Hoop-skirts, ten per cent.;

Hooks and eyes, ten per cent.;

Insertions, laces, and lace goods of all descriptions, ten per cent.;

Ribbons not otherwise provided for, ten per cent.;

Silver plate, plated ware or gilt ware, ten per cent.;

Britannia ware and fancy metal ware, ten per cent.;

Tea, ten per cent.;

Matches of all kinds, ten per cent.;

Cigarettes and all descriptions of paper cigars, twenty-five per cent;

Jewelry and all descriptions of metal, glass or stone beads, ten per cent.;

Paintings, pictures, engravings, statuary, bronzes, ornamental work of metal, stone, marble, plaster of Paris or alabaster, and all imitations thereof, ten per cent.;

Perfumery (other than that which pays a spirit duty), powders, hair, tooth, nail and other toilet brushes, ten per cent.;

Soaps, ten per cent.;

Pipes (smoking), pipe-stems, bowls and fixtures, cigar-holders, twenty-five per cent.;

Candles, ten per cent.;

Candies, twenty-five per cent.;

Peanut oil, twenty-five per cent.;

Toys, ten per cent.;

Fire-arms, ten per cent.;

Ammunition, ten per cent.;

Fire-works and fire-crackers, twenty-five per cent.;

Watches and clocks, in whole or in part, ten per cent.;

Playing-cards, ten per cent.

SEC. 2. That section 2 of the said act be and the same is hereby amended to read as follows: Sec. 2. There shall be levied, collected and paid upon the following goods imported into this kingdom specific duties as follows, to wit:

On kid and all other leather and skin gloves, three dollars per dozen pairs;

On cigars and cheroots, ten dollars per thousand;

On China tobacco, fifty cents per pound;

On camphor trunks, in nests of four, two dollars per nest; and in nests of two, one dollar per nest;

On China matting, one dollar per roll;

On port, sherry, Madeira, and other wines of like nature above eighteen per cent. of alcoholic strength; also on all cordials, bitters and other articles of any name or description containing alcohol, or preserved in alcohol or spirits above that rate of strength and below thirty per cent., unless otherwise provided for, two dollars per gallon;

On champagne, sparkling Moselle, and sparkling hock, three dollars per dozen reputed quarts, and one dollar and fifty cents per dozen reputed pints;

On claret, Rhine wine, and other light wines under eighteen per cent. of alcoholic strength, not otherwise provided for, forty cents per dozen reputed quarts, twenty cents per dozen for reputed pints, and fifteen cents per gallon if in bulk;

On ale, porter, cider, and all fermented drinks not otherwise provided for, forty cents per dozen reputed quarts, twenty cents per dozen reputed pints, and fifteen cents per gallon if in bulk.

SEC. 3. The provisions of this act shall extend and apply to all goods in bond at the time it shall come into operation.

Approved this 1st day of August, A. D. 1878.

KALAKAUA R.

TARIFF OF BRITISH GUIANA.

[Ordinance No. 5, of 1882.]

Publication by His Excellency Sir Henry Turner Irving, Knight, Companion of the Most Distinguished Order of Saint Michael and Saint George, Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over the Colony of British Guiana, Vice-Admiral and Ordinary of the same, &c., &c., &c., with the advice and consent of the Honorable the Court of Policy, combined with the financial representatives of the inhabitants of said colony.

To all to whom these presents, do, may, or shall come greeting, be it known:

Whereas a statement has been laid before our present combined assembly, showing the amount of supplies which will be necessary to defray the colonial expenditure for the current year; and whereas it is expedient that the necessary taxes required to defray the colonial expenditure should be raised, levied, and collected by ordinance: Be it therefore enacted by his excellency the governor of the colony of British Guiana, with the advice and consent of the court of policy thereof and of the financial representatives of the inhabitants of the said colony in combined court assembled, as follows:

1. There shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid the several duties, as the same are respectively set forth in figures in the schedule herein contained, upon all goods, wares, and merchandise, enumerated in the said schedule, which shall be imported into British Guiana, or taken out of bond for consumption in the colony, on and after the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two, and until the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-three:

Schedule of duties payable on articles imported or taken out of bond for consumption on and after 1st July, 1882, until 1st July, 1883.

Bacon	per pound..	$0 02
Beef:		
Pickled	per barrel of 200 pounds..	3 00
Dried or smoked	per pound..	02
Bread, navy biscuits or crackers, or other kinds	per 100..	50
Bricks	per 1,000..	30
Buckets and pails of all kinds	per dozen..	25
Butter	per pound..	02
Candles:		
Tallow	per pound..	01
Spermaceti, wax, adamantine, hydraulic press composition, or any other than simple tallow	per pound..	05
Cheese	per pound..	02
Chocolate, including all kinds of prepared cocoa	per pound..	04
Cigars	per pound..	75
Clapboards	per 1,000..	1 50
Coals	per hogshead, including the packages..	24
Coals, loose	per ton..	36
Cocoa, raw	per pound..	1½
Coffee	do....	1½
Confectionery, including sweetened preserves	do....	05
Cordage, including gasketing	per 112 pounds..	1 00
Corn, grain of every description and every kind of beans, pease and pulse of every description and every kind, and whether whole or split	per bushel..	05
Corn brooms	per dozen..	20
Cornmeal and oatmeal	per 100 pounds..	25
Dogs	per head..	5 00
Donkeys	do....	1 00
Fish, dried	per 112 pounds..	50
Fish, pickled, say:		
Salmon	per barrel of 200 pounds..	2 00
Mackerel	do....	1 00
And all other sorts	do....	25
Fish, smoked	per pound..	00½

Flour of all descriptions	per barel of 196 pounds..	$1 00
Ganje	per pound..	50
Ginger, raw	do....	05
Ground feed, middlings, shorts, and bran	per bushel..	05
Gunpowder	per pound..	20
Hams and all other dried or smoked meats, and including sausages other than in tins	per pound..	02
Hay	per 100 pounds..	10
Hoops:		
Wood	per 1,000..	1 50
Iron	per 112 pounds..	10
Horses:		
Stallions under fourteen and a half hands in height	each..	100 00
All other horses	per head..	7 00
Lard	per pound..	01
Lumber* of all kinds	per 1,000 feet board measure..	2 00
Malt liquor:		
In wood	per hogshead..	5 00
In bottles	per dozen quarts..	24
In bottles	per dozen pints..	12
Matches:		
Per gross of boxes, containing each at the rate of 100 matches, if in packages containing not less than ten gross		20
Per gross of boxes, each box containing at the rate of 100 matches, if in packoges containing less than ten gross		40
Match splints, per case, each case containing equal to ten gross of matches of the ordinary length		3 75
Mules	per head..	5 00
Muskets, guns, and fowling pieces	each..	2 00
Oats	per bushel..	05
Opium or bhang	per pound..	2 00
Oils:		
Which give off an inflammable vapor at a temperature of less than 73 degrees Fahrenheit, as ascertained by the test which is established in England by the 42d and 43d Victoria, cap. 47	per gallon..	3 00
All other (essential, perfumed, and castor oil excepted)	do....	15
Paints of all kinds	per 112 pounds..	25
Pepper	per pound..	01
Percussion caps	per 100..	04
Pistols, including revolvers	each..	5 00
Pitch	per barrel..	50
Pork, pickled	per barrel of 200 pounds..	3 00
Rice	per 100 pounds..	25
Rosin	per barrel..	50
Sago	per pound..	02
Shingles of all kinds	per 1,000..	50
Shooks	per pack..	08
Shot	per pound..	02
Slates	per 1,000..	1 00
Snuff	per pound..	50
Soap, other than perfumed	do....	00½
Spirits or strong water of all sorts, not sweetened, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so on in proportion for any greater strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon	at per gallon..	2 00
Sweetened spirits, liqueurs, bitters, and cordials	do....	2 00
Spirit, the following perfumed, viz, cologne water, Florida water, bay rum, and bay water	at per gallon..	1 00
Staves and headings, white oak	per 1,000..	2 00
Staves of every other description	do....	1 50
Tar	per barrel..	50
Sugars	per pound..	04
Tapioca	per pound..	02
Tea	per pound..	12
Tobacco pipes (clay)	per gross..	1 00
Tongues, pickled, dried, or smoked	per pound..	02
Turpentine, crude	per gallon..	50
Turpentine spirts of	per gallon..	18

* Spruce and white pine lumber subject to a deduction of 5 per cent. for splits.

†Tobacco:	
In leaf, if in packages not less than a hogshead of 800 pounds, per pound..	25
In leaf, if in smaller packages ..... per pound..	35
Manufactured (cigars and snuff excepted)..... per pound..	35
Varnish:	
Not containing alcohol or spirits ..... per gallon..	18
Containing any quantity of alcohol or spirits..... per gallon..	2 00
Wine, red, admitted by the comptroller of customs as claret or Tarragona and the declared value of which shall be any sum not exceeding two dollars a gallon	
If in wood, and containing less than 26 per cent. of proof spirit as verified by Sykes' hydrometer..... per gallon..	35
If in wood, and containing 26 per cent. and less than 33 per cent. of proof spirit as verified by Sykes' hydrometer..... per gallon..	50
If bottled ..... per dozen quarts..	72
If bottled ..... per dozen pints..	36
Wine:	
Of all other descriptions, bottled ..... per dozen quarts..	2 00
Of all other descriptions..... per dozen pints..	1 00
Of all other descriptions, in wood ..... per gallon..	80

and these rates upon any greater or less quantity of such goods, wares, and merchandise, respectively. And upon all other goods, wares, and merchandise not herein enumerated, which shall be imported or taken out of bond as aforesaid, shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid during the period aforesaid, an ad valorem duty at the rate of ten per centum, or ten dollars upon every one hundred dollars, of the value of such goods, wares, and merchandise, at the place of shipment: *Provided*. That the following articles shall be exempt from duties:

SCHEDULE OF EXEMPTIONS.

Animal charcoal.
Bitumen or mineral pitch.
Broken stone and road metal of any description.
Bullion, coin, and diamonds.
Bulls, cows, calves, heifers, steers, and oxen.
Cotton seeds.
Earth closets.
Fire engines.
Fresh fish and turtle.
Fresh meats.
Fruits, vegetables, and ground provisions, not enumerated.
Goods, stores, arms and ammunition imported by order of the executive government.
Hogs and pigs, of every description.
Horses, baggage, and furniture of officers in Her Majesty's naval and military services.
Ice.
Leeches.
Lime, including the packages in which it is contained.
Machinery, comprising the following: Machinery employed in the drainage of land or in mining operations, or in the manufacture or preparation of the produce of raw materials of the colony, or in the manufacture or preparation of manures, whether imported for sale or on private account; also machinery and implements intended for water works, tanks, and lamp posts with their appurtenances; paving and kerb stones, and draining pipes, imported by the mayor and town council of Georgetown or by the Board of Superintendance of New Amsterdam; also machinery, retorts, gasometers, and pipes imported for the construction of gas works in this colony; locomotive engines, railway plant, machinery for steamboats, saw-mills, and foundries; steam boilers of every description, steam boiler plates and tubes; all pans, teaches, tanks, and other vessels used exclusively in the manufacture of sugar or for the storeage or supply of water; locks or sluices for sea defences or water supply; iron cane punts, iron bridges, grating bars, tile and brick-making machinery, and articles imported for the use of the pilot service of the colony.
Manures, including nitrate of soda, plaster of Paris, and whiting.
Molasses.
Materials and church furniture which may be specially imported for any place of worship of the Christian religion in this colony.
Materials to be used in the construction of the new Stabroek market.

†Duty on tobacco to be paid on the weight thereof being certified, either by a sworn weigher and gauger or otherwise, to the satisfaction of the comptroller of colonial customs.

Packages in which goods are imported (except trunks and canisters and except hogsheads and puncheons not containing lime or coals).
Patterns or samples.
Polariscopes.
Poultry.
Printed books, not subject to duty under Ordinance No. 14 of the year 1855.
Printing presses and types, pring paper and printing ink, imported by or directly for the conductor of any newspaper or printing establishment for the exclusive purpose of being used by him in the course of his trade.
Provisions and stores of every description imported by Her Majesty's Government for the use of Her Majesty's land and sea forces.
Salt.
Sewing machines.
Sheep.
Specimens illustrative of natural history, garden seeds, bulbs and roots.
Steam plows, steam diggers, and steam dredgers.
Telegraph instruments and other materials imported by telegraph companies, and necessary for the use and construction of their works, offices, and stations in this colony.
Tombstones.
Uniforms, arms, ammunition, accouterments, and prizes, imported by and for the use of Her Majesty's land or sea forces or of the colonial militia or any volunteer force or rifle association sanctioned by the governor.
Wines, spirituous liquors and stores, imported by and for the use of the governor.

2. The provisions of Ordinance No. 16 of the year 1854, which relate to the warehousing of goods, shall not be applicable to gunpowder imported during the continuance of this ordinance; and the duty on all such gunpowder shall be paid immediately on importation.

3. For the purpose of encouraging the trade of the colony with other countries, parties exporting goods, wares, and merchandise on which duties shall have been paid under and by virtue of this ordinance, or any other ordinance, shall be entitled to a drawback of duties on such goods, wares, and merchandise at and after the rates and amounts levied and paid on such goods; and the mode, manner, and time of claiming such drawback shall be subject to the provisions of ordinance No. 16 of the year 1854, and every other ordinance that may be hereafter passed by the governor with the advice and consent of the court of policy, regulating drawbacks: *Provided always*, That no drawback shall be allowed on any wine or spirituous liquor or gunpowder which shall be exported from the colony at any time during the continuance of this ordinance.

4. There shall be raised, levied, and collected upon every vessel other than the vessels hereinafter excepted entering at the custom-house at any of the ports of British Guiana, a tonnage duty calculated according to the following rates, that is to say: On a vessel of seventy tons and upwards the sum of fifteen cents per ton; on a vessel under seventy tons the sum of five cents per ton, not to be collected more than four times in any one year. And where in either case the tonnage of such vessel is not a whole number of tons, the tonnage of such vessel for the purposes of this section shall be deemed the whole number nearest the actual number of tons.

The following vessels shall be exempted, that is to say:
Vessels belonging to Her Majesty or belonging to or chartered by Her Majesty or Her Majesty's Government or any foreign government recognized by Her Majesty.
Vessels employed on any work of public utility and which in the opinion of his excellency the governor, ought to be exempt.
Vessels which in the opinion of the comptroller of customs are yachts and are not used in any trade or business.
The royal mail steamers, the French mail steamers, and the Dutch mail steamers.
Vessels calling at any of the said ports and not breaking bulk: *Provided*, That no officer or seaman of the vessel is left in the colony or becomes an inmate of any of the colonial hospitals or prisons before the vessel sails.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN FRANCE AND PORTUGAL OF DECEMBER 19, 1881.

[Translated by Consul DuPont-Syle, of Funchal.]

ARTICLE 1. There shall be full and entire liberty of commerce and navigation between the people of the two countries. French and Portuguese citizens shall not be subject, on account of their commerce and industry, in the ports, cities, or any places whatever of the respective states, whether they may there establish themselves or reside temporarily, to any taxes, imposts, or patents, under any name whatsoever, other nor higher than those which shall be collected on citizens. The privileges, immunities, and other favors whatsoever which, in the matter of commerce and industry, the citizens of one of the high contracting powers may enjoy, shall be common to those of the other.

2. The objects of Portuguese origin or manufacture enumerated in Tariff A joined to the present treaty, shall be admitted into France at the duties fixed by the said tariff, all additional duties included, when they shall be imported directly.

3. The objects of French origin or manufacture enumerated in Tariff B, joined to the present treaty, and imported directly from France or Algeria, shall be admitted into Portugal at the duties fixed by the said tariff, all additional duties included, except the duty called *emoluments*, of 3 per cent. on the principal duty, which shall continue to be collected.

4. Commodities of every nature originating in one of the two countries and imported into the other may not be subjected to duties of excise, *octroi*, or consumption, collected on account of the state or communes, superior to those which burden or may burden similar commodities of native production. Nevertheless, the importation duties may be augmented by sums which represent the expense occasioned to native producers by the excise system.

5. If one of the high contracting parties judges necessary to establish a right of excise, *octroi*, or consumption, or an addition to a duty, on an article of native production or fabrication comprised in the tariffs annexed to the present treaty, the similar foreign article may immediately be burdened, at importation, with an equal duty.

6. The high contracting parties reciprocally guarantee the treatment of the most favored nation in regard to all that concerns importation, exportation, and transit. Each of them engages to cause the other to profit by every favor, privilege, or abatement in the import or export tariff of duties of articles mentioned or not (mentioned) in the present treaty which it (each nation) would accord to a third power. Nevertheless, there is reserved, for the advantage of Portugal, the right to concede to Brazil alone peculiar advantages which may not be claimed by France, as a consequence of her right to the treatment of the most favored nation.

The high contracting powers further engage themselves not to establish one against the other any duty, or import prohibition, or export prohibition, which may not be, at the same time, applicable to other nations.

7. In that which concerns commodities and the labels of commodities or their packings, designs, and marks of manufacture or commerce, the French and Portuguese shall enjoy, in each of the respective states, the same protection as citizens.

8. Objects liable to a duty of entry which serve for samples, and which are imported into Portugal by commercial travelers of French houses, or into France by commercial travelers of Portuguese houses, shall enjoy, on one side and the other, on condition of (their undergoing) the custom-house formalities necessary for insuring their re-exportation or rewarehousing in bond, a restitution of the duties which ought to be paid on entry. These formalities shall be regulated by a common agreement between the high contracting parties.

9. French manufacturers and merchants as well as their commercial travelers traveling in Portugal, may, without being subject to any Portuguese impost or patent, there make purchases and sales for the needs of their industry, and collect orders, with or without samples, but without retailing merchandise.

10. The ad valorem duties stipulated for in Tariff B, annexed to the present treaty, shall be calculated on the value, in the place of origin or manufacture, of the object imported, augmented by the cost of transport, insurance, and commission necessary for importation into Portugal as far as the place of introduction.

The value of merchandise imported into Portugal must be established by an invoice indicating the real price, and emanating from the manufacturer or seller, or by a declaration which shall take the place of it.

The one or the other of these documents must specify the quantity of each kind of merchandise contained in the package, as well as their value.

11. If the Portuguese custom-house judge the declared value insufficient, it shall make provision for proceeding to a valuation of the merchandise by experts, of whom

one shall be nominated by it (the custom-house) and the other by the importer. In case of division of opinion in the two arbitrating experts, the president of the tribunal of commercial resort shall name a third arbitrator. If the appraisement establish that the value of the merchandise does not exceed by 10 per cent. that which is declared by the importer, the duty shall be collected on the sum total of the declaration, and the expenses of appraisement shall be borne by the custom-house.

In the contrary case, this duty shall be augmented by 50 per cent. on the score of penalty, and the expenses of appraisement shall be borne by the one making the declaration.

12. Products composed of materials or substances diversely taxed, not specially tariffed in the present treaty, shall pay the duty of the part of the mixture most heavily taxed, except when the parts of the mixture may be easily separated or when accessories shall be in question.

13. French ships coming, with or without cargo, from any port whatsoever into the ports of Portugal, and reciprocally Portuguese ships coming, with or without cargo, from any port whatsoever into the ports of France, shall be treated similarly to the ships of citizens.

14. The two high contracting powers reserve to themselves the right to previously deduct in their respective ports, on the ships of the other power, as well as on the merchandise composing the cargo of these ships, special taxes applied to the needs of a local service.

It is expected that the taxes in question shall be, in every case, applied to the ships of the two high contracting powers, or their cargoes.

15. In that which concerns the *berthing* of ships, their loading and discharging in ports, harbors, roadsteads or basins, and generally in regard to all formalities and arrangements whatsoever to which merchant vessels, their crews and cargoes, ought to be submitted, there shall not be granted to national vessels, in the respective states, any privilege nor favor which shall not be equally granted to the ships of the other power; the will of the high contracting powers being that, in this relation, French and Portuguese vessels shall be treated as upon a footing of perfect equality.

16. The nationality of vessels shall be admitted, on both sides, according to the particular laws and regulations of each country, by virtue of the documents delivered to the captains by the competent authorities.

17. Merchandise of every kind imported into France under the Portuguese flag, and reciprocally merchandise of every kind imported into Portugal under the French flag, shall enjoy the same exemptions, restitution of duties, bounties, or other favors of any kind soever; it shall not pay respectively other nor heavier custom-house, navigation, or toll duties, collected for the profit of the state, communes, local corporations, individuals, or any establishments whatsoever, and shall not be subject to any formality other than if the importation had taken place under the national flag.

18. Merchandise of Portuguese origin and manufacture, forwarded to France by railways bordering on Portugal, shall be considered as imported directly under the Portuguese flag, provided that the cars or packages containing this merchandise be sealed by the Portuguese custom-house, and that the seals be acknowledged intact on their entry into France.

If, by consequence of circumstances of *force majeure*, the cars come to be opened in course of transit, the benefit of the preceding arrangements shall be maintained, provided that the case of *force majeure* shall be duly established, and that the operations which may be the consequence of it be made under the surveillance of the local authority, which must, moreover, affix new seals or stamps.

Merchandise of French origin or manufacture shall enjoy, under the same conditions, on entry into Portugal, an exactly similar treatment.

19. Merchandise of every kind which shall be exported from Portugal by French ships, or from France by Portuguese ships, for any destination whatsoever, shall not be subjected to other duties nor formalities of exit than if it were exported by national ships, and shall enjoy, under both flags, all bounties and restitutions of duties or other favors which are or shall be granted, in each of the two countries, to the national marine.

Nevertheless, there is an exception made to the preceding arrangements in that which concerns the particular advantages and encouragements of which the products of the national fishery are or may be the object in the one country or the other.

20. French ships entering a port of Portugal, and, reciprocally, Portuguese ships entering a port of France, and which come there to discharge only a part of their cargo, may, while conforming however to the laws and regulations of the respective states, keep on board the portion of their cargo which may be destined for another port, whether of the same country or another, and may re-export it, without being compelled to pay for this latter portion of their cargo any custom-house tax, except the taxes of surveillance, which, moreover, shall not of course (*sic*) be collected except at rates fixed for the national commerce.

21. There shall be completely exempt from tonnage, wharf, and dispatch dues, which may have continued to be maintained in the respective ports—

(1.) Ships which, entered in ballast from any place whatsoever, shall depart for the same place in ballast.

(2.) Ships which, passing from a port of one of the two states into one or more ports of the same state, whether for the purpose of there discharging the whole or a portion of their cargo or for the purpose of making up or completing their cargo, shall prove to have paid these dues.

(3.) Steamships engaged in the service of the post-office, of travelers and their luggage, and performing no commercial transaction.

(4.) Ships which, having entered a port with cargo, whether voluntarily or compelled by circumstances, shall depart from it without having performed any commercial transaction.

There shall not be considered, in the case of putting into port of necessity, as commercial transactions, the discharging and reloading of merchandise for the repair of the ship or its cleansing, when it is put into quarantine; the transshipment on to another ship in case of the unseaworthiness of the first; the expenses necessary in revictualing for the ship's company, and the sale of damaged goods when the custom-house administration shall have given authority for it.

22. In all that which concerns the rights of navigation, the two high contracting parties reciprocally promise not to grant any privilege which may not, at the same moment, extend to the citizens of their respective nations.

23. Coast navigation or the coasting trade are not comprised in the stipulations of the present treaty.

24. Merchandise of every kind coming from one of the two states, or going thither, shall be reciprocally exempt, in the other state, from every duty of transit.

Nevertheless, the special legislation of each of the two states is maintained for articles the transit of which is or may be forbidden, and the two high contracting powers reserve to themselves the right of subjecting to special authorizations the transit of arms and munitions of war.

25. Products of the soil or industry of the country of one of the high contracting powers shall reciprocally enjoy, on their importation into the colonies of the other country, all the advantages and favors which actually are or subsequently shall be accorded to similar products of the most favored nation.

26. The arrangements of the present treaty shall be applicable, without any exception, on the one side, to Algeria; on the other to the Portuguese islands known as *adjacent;* viz., to the islands of Madeira and Porto Santo and to the archipelago of the Azores.

27. The present treaty shall go into force the 9th of February, 1882, and shall remain in force until the 1st of February, 1892. In case that neither of the two high contracting powers shall have notified, twelve months before the end of said period, its intention of causing the purposes of said treaty to cease, it shall continue binding till the expiration of a year from the day on which one or other of the high contracting powers shall have given such notice.

28. The present treaty shall be submitted to the approbation of the Chambers of each of the two states, and the ratifications of it shall be exchanged at Paris, at the latest, by the 4th of February, 1882.